

CRANFIELD UNIVERSITY

ALEXANDRE BRADLEY

A COMPARISON OF WHOLE LIFE CYCLE COSTS OF ROBOTIC, SEMI-AUTOMATED, AND MANUAL BUILD AIRPORT BAGGAGE HANDLING SYSTEMS

DEPARTMENT OF AIR TRANSPORT, SCHOOL OF ENGINEERING
MPhil/PhD

PhD THESIS
Academic year: 2012-13

Supervisors: Dr Romano Pagliari / Mr Richard Moxon
May 2013

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This thesis is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the
degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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I. ABSTRACT

This thesis proposes that a baggage handling system (BHS) environment can be defined and coupled to a whole life cycle cost (WLCC NPV) model. The results from specific experiments using the model can be used as the basis by which to commercially compare BHS flight build¹ types of any capacity, and BHS geographical location.

The model examined the three flight build types: (i) Fully automatic build²; (ii) Semi-automatic build³, and; (iii) Manual build⁴.

The model has the ability to calculate a bag flow busy hour rate, and to replicate the baggage flow characteristics observed within real BHS operations. Whole life cycle costs (WLCC NPV) results are produced, and these form the basis by which the comparison of BHS types is made. An overall WLCC NPV scatter diagram was produced, which is a summation of each of the test sensitivities. The assumptions⁵ and limitations of the analysis are provided. It is proposed that the results, conclusions and recommendations shall be of value to airports, airlines, and design consultants.

Key terms: Baggage handling systems comparison, robotic flight build, semi-automated flight build, manual flight build, airport BHS capital and operating costs.

¹ “Built or build” denotes process of (i) removal of a bag(s) from baggage system chute or lateral (ii) scanning of bag to verify authorised to load bag status (iii) loading of bag into a ULD or baggage cart.

² Fully automatic build: A mechanised robotic device physically loads the baggage into the containers or baggage carts essentially independent of baggage handler person.

³ Semi-automatic build: A mechanised device, operated by a baggage handler non-directly loads the baggage into the containers or baggage carts.

⁴ Manual build: Also known as conventional build, where a baggage handler picks up baggage from the baggage system and inserts them manually into containers or baggage carts.

⁵ Assumptions: To determine the size, and functionality of a baggage handling system using a WLCC model approach, certain variable assumptions must be made. The key assumptions in this regard are declared.

II. Dedication

II. DEDICATION

“This thesis is especially dedicated to my wife, to my children, my mum, and to my late father”

III. Acknowledgements

III. ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Cranfield Team

First and foremost I would like to thank my supervisors at Cranfield University Dr Romano Pagliari, and co-supervisor Mr Richard Moxon. Dr Pagliari, with support from Mr Moxon outlined the path I needed to take to ensure my research skills, and my report writing skills were fit for purpose. When I was not sure which path to take they provided a foundation of sound logic, and reasoning which provided me with the self confidence that I required during some difficult periods. For that alone I am truly grateful. They also showed a continued enthusiasm for my chosen researched subject matter. I would also like to thank the back office team at Cranfield, namely Tracey Clarke, and Heather Hill for the high quality clerical support I received. Finally I would also like to thank Dr Simon Templar from Cranfield School of Management for his assistance with financial appraisal tools.

Aviation Industry

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III. Acknowledgements

III. ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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VIII. List of Abbreviations

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<u>Abbreviation</u>	<u>Description</u>
ACI	Airport Council International
ADRM	Airport Development Reference Manual published by IATA
AMS	ICAO airport code Amsterdam Airport
AOC	Airline Operators Committee (London Airports)
ATL	Authorised to load baggage
BAA	Company formerly known as British Airports Authority
BHS	Baggage handling system
BSM	Baggage Source Message
CAPEX	Capital Expenditure
CBA	Cost Benefit Analysis
CAD	Computer Aided Design
CUTE	Common User Terminal Equipment
Dbase	Database
DCV	Directly Controlled Vehicle
EBITDA	Earnings before interest, taxes, depreciation and amortization
EM	Empirical model
EU	The European Union
FAT	Financial Appraisal Technique
HBS	Hold Baggage Screening
IATA	International Air Transport Association
ICAO	International Civil Aviation Organisation
IRR	Internal Rate of Return

VIII. List of Abbreviations

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<u>Abbreviation</u>	<u>Description</u>
ISO	International Standards Organisation
IT	Information Technology
JIT	Just in time
LCOMC	Life Cycle Operational and Maintenance Costs
LHR	ICAO airport code London Heathrow Airport
NPV	Net Present Value
OPEX	Operating Expenditure
QTY	Quantity
RTT	Product name RTT Longreach semi-automated bag loader (supplier Telair International)
SITA	Société Internationale de Télécommunications Aéronautiques
SQ	ICAO Airline Code: Singapore Airlines
STD	Standard time of departure of flight
STN	ICAO airport code Stansted Airport (BAA)
ULD	Unit load device
UTL	Unauthorised to load
VS	ICAO Airline Code: Virgin Airways
WACC	Weighted average cost of capital
WLCC NPV	Whole life cycle cost - net present value

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Following the trial installations of fully automatic robotic baggage loading technology at Amsterdam airport, and semi-automated baggage loading technology used at Heathrow Airport, the commercial question has arisen as to which of these new technologies, when compared to manual baggage loading, produces the most cost effective BHS solution, when used within international or domestic passenger airports.

Departing hold⁶ baggage handling systems are used in passenger airports. Passenger hold baggage is inserted into a BHS, where it undergoes a series of baggage processes. These processes ensure that the baggage gets on the same departing flight as the corresponding passenger, and that all baggage has been X-ray security screened, and deemed safe to be loaded on to the outbound aircraft.

Manual conventional build BHS processes use staff to load baggage into the baggage holding device owned by that airline. These devices are known as: (i) Unit Load Device (ULD⁷) or (ii) Baggage carts⁸. Conventional manual BHS specifications are documented by IATA (2004). With independent cost advisor support, these BHS can be sized, and their capital and operating costs can be calculated for any required system capacity.

⁶ Hold: position in the belly of commercial aircraft used to store passenger hold baggage.

⁷ Unit Load Device: also known as ULD, an aluminium container used to store passengers hold baggage whilst within the airport baggage hall, or on the airport apron, or within the hold of aircraft able to accommodate such devices, as defined by the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) Annex 1.

⁸ Baggage Carts: wheeled steel containers used to store passenger hold baggage whilst within the airport baggage hall or on the airport apron. These units are not loaded onto the aircraft and reside at the airport at all times.

Figure 1 details six typical possible BHS hall locations relative to the main passenger areas, and the aircraft pier infrastructure. There can be many airport / geographic specific reasons for selecting one BHS option location over another. These reasons can include:

- (i) Land or infrastructure availability;
- (ii) Capital and operating cost considerations;
- (iii) Security characteristics.

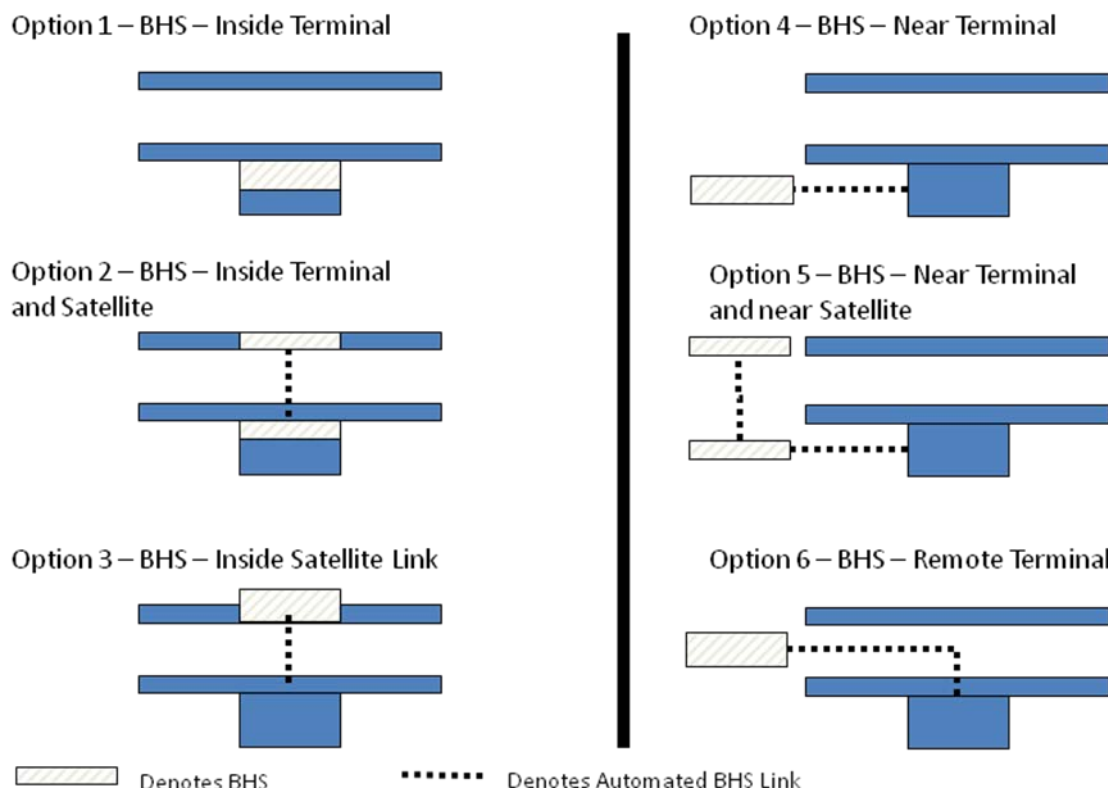
BHS are normally located within the terminal building complex as per option 1 in Figure 1. They can also be located in separate baggage buildings, attached by umbilical baggage system technology that connects the terminal building with a satellite baggage processing building as per options 2, 3, 5, and 6 as shown within Figure 1.

Baggage handling systems are categorized by IATA (2004) according to the peak bags/hour flow rate that they process. Category⁹ A baggage systems are the smallest and simplest, and Category C are the largest and most complex. Each category of system has a set of IATA recommended baggage system processes, and technologies to consider adopting.

⁹ IATA Category A denotes bag flow rate of up to ≤ 999 bags/hour Peak
IATA Category B denotes bag flow rate of ≥ 1000 bags/hour ≤ 4999 bags/hour Peak
IATA Category C denotes bag flow rate of ≥ 5000 bags/hour

Figure 1: Possible BHS locations

Source: Bradley (2010) Independent Airport Planning Manual



1.2 Statement of the problem

Advances in computer processing, and sensor technology, including the use of robotic systems, now present the opportunity for airports to use semi-automated or fully automated baggage loading equipment, to build the hold baggage of departing flights. The semi-automatic and fully automatic baggage flight build technologies could theoretically be used in any airport of any size. There are no published recommended practices for the use of semi or fully automatic flight built loading technologies. A gap in knowledge exists determining when it is operationally, and commercially most effective to select semi or fully automated baggage loading technology in favor of conventional manual baggage system flight build equipment.

Completion of the PhD aim and objectives provides an analysis tool, model, analyzed results and conclusions that can be referenced by both the User Group¹⁰ and the Specialist Group¹¹; the results allow these groups to make informed impartial decisions regarding the use of the appropriate BHS build technology.

The model shall be used to determine if it is appropriate to deploy this equipment for a specific airport capacity taking into account various sensitivities that are outlined in Section 5 of this thesis.

1.3 Aim and objectives

The aim of the research is to determine, for any given set of baggage demand flow rates, the point at which it is more cost effective, from a capital cost, and operating cost perspective, to select fully automated or semi-automated baggage build technologies in favour of conventional baggage build technologies when processing departing hold baggage.

1.3.1 Objectives

To meet the above research aim, the following objectives were identified. All objectives were started in parallel, with the exception of Objective 4. Objective 4, the completion of the model could only be completed when objectives 1, 2 and 3 were first completed. The objectives were:

- (i) To determine the point at which it is operationally most effective to use semi, and fully automatic baggage loading technologies;

¹⁰ User Group: airport operators, airport regulators, airline handlers and airline organisations.

¹¹ Specialist Group: specialist baggage handling system consultants, baggage handling system manufacturers.

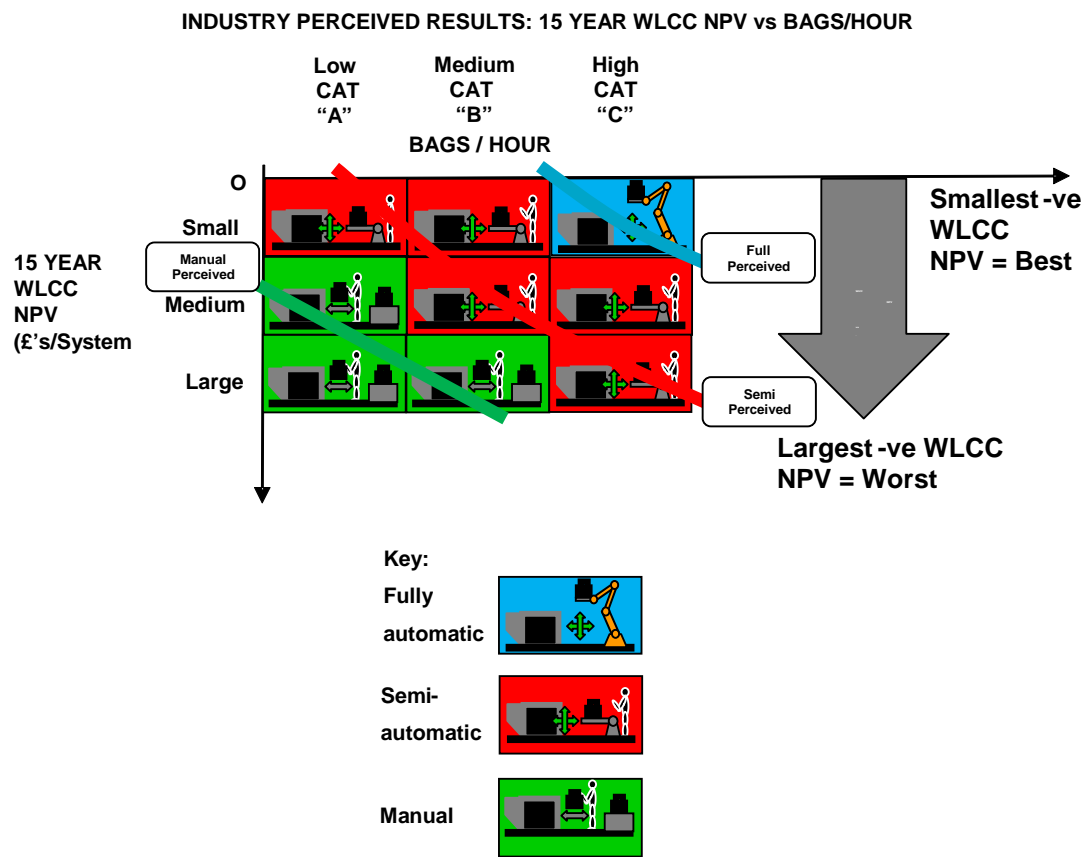
- (ii) To determine the semi and fully automated and conventional manual baggage handling processes and technologies, and the performance capabilities of said technology for the use of loading of baggage into unit load devices;
- (iii) To estimate the capital and operating costs for semi and fully automated and conventional airport baggage handling systems;
- (iv) To develop a model that shall construct three BHSs, one for each flight build type. The model shall define the size of the building envelop that would enclose each of the BHS flight build types. The model shall calculate the WLCC NPV values for each BHS solution constructed. The model shall be used to construct IATA Category A, B and C BHS solutions, and have the ability to test the commercial and operational boundary conditions that could exist across world airports.

1.3.2 Pre-investigation industry perceived view

Prior to the study, the assumption was that semi and fully automatic build technologies might only be commercially and operationally viable for the larger Category B and C airports, IATA (2004).

Figure 2 graphically represents the pre-investigation industry view; the coloured blocks shown were not based on any calculations, and can now be compared with the final study results seen in Chapter 5, determined from the completion of the experiments also detailed in Chapter 5, and the test sensitivities defined in Table 7 calculated using the model.

Figure 2: Pre-investigation industry view



1.4 Method of study

This section outlines how the study was carried out, and what route was taken to come to meaningful results and conclusions.

Following completion of the literature review it was necessary to construct a model that would be subjected to a series of planned experiments. The results of these experiments would be analysed and conclusions drawn and documented to answer the PhD aim. Such a model would need to reference best practice baggage system processes, IATA (2004). In the situation of fully, and semi-automated build processes, best practice guidance has not previously been documented. It was therefore necessary to look to the baggage handling industry for state of the art baggage system solutions, Bellamy (2009), and airport installation experience of recent fully automated robotic

build technologies as used at Amsterdam airport, Samola Betty, (2008).

The model has a series of inputs that effectively define the throughput or “demand forecast” of the baggage systems that are to be compared.

To construct meaningful processes, and proportions of technologies the model references equipment throughput rates, and constants which have been determined through analysis of real equipment and operational data obtained from BHS project layouts from Amsterdam airport, Gatwick airport, Glasgow airport, Heathrow airport, Hong Kong airport, Panama airport, and Prague airport.

The model constructs baggage system solutions for the three types of systems being assessed (manual build/semi-automated build/fully automated build). This in turn determines the size of a baggage handling building that will house these pieces of equipment. Capital and operating cost data was obtained from independent cost consultants, and airlines, Briggs, (2009), Dolye, (2010), Cowper, (2010), IATA (2004), Shortland, (2010), Stewart (2010), Taylor, (2010), Unwin, (2009).

The resultant capital cost and operating cost of each of the three types of baggage handling systems are then managed into a whole life cycle cost model, Nopper, and Hompel (2010), for the design life (declared to be 15¹² years) of the baggage handling equipment. This data is then stored in a results database. The results of the model were validated¹³ against real airport system data.

¹² BHS suppliers warrant the performance of BHSs over a 15 year declared life period.

¹³ Validated: Process by which a real airport baggage handling system size which has been designed for a specific demand has been compared to that of the output data obtained from the WLCC model. Validated model, means that the WLCC model compares favourably with real airport systems data.

Experiments were devised to test reasonable system design boundary conditions that could be expected. The boundary conditions would look at capital costs, operating costs, inflation and baggage handler staff loading rate sensitivities. Furthermore the experiments would be carried out for throughput rate demands that are experienced in IATA Category A, B and C baggage handling systems.

1.5 The research case

This research shall ultimately provide best practice guidance for the User Group, and the Specialist Group, by impartially researching, and assessing data pertaining to the use of the new semi and fully automated build technologies.

The capital cost, and operating cost of automated or conventional BHSs is not defined in any previous literature. Available advice that does exist is technically and commercially biased and cannot be relied upon. The User Group needs independent guidance on when it is operationally appropriate, and cost effective to adopt semi and fully automatic baggage systems, in place of conventional baggage systems. A gap in knowledge exists and only small fragments of information are available in this regard, none of which would satisfy the aim of this proposed research.

1.6 Research material requirements

To meet the objectives detailed herein, it has been necessary to undertake a continuous literature review to research the immediate and surrounding subject matter. This has determined what knowledge already exists, and what information has been helpful to answer the aim of this research. Chapter 2.0 of this thesis details the “fields of

interest”¹⁴ that were researched in this regard.

1.7 Background: Push and Pull BHSs

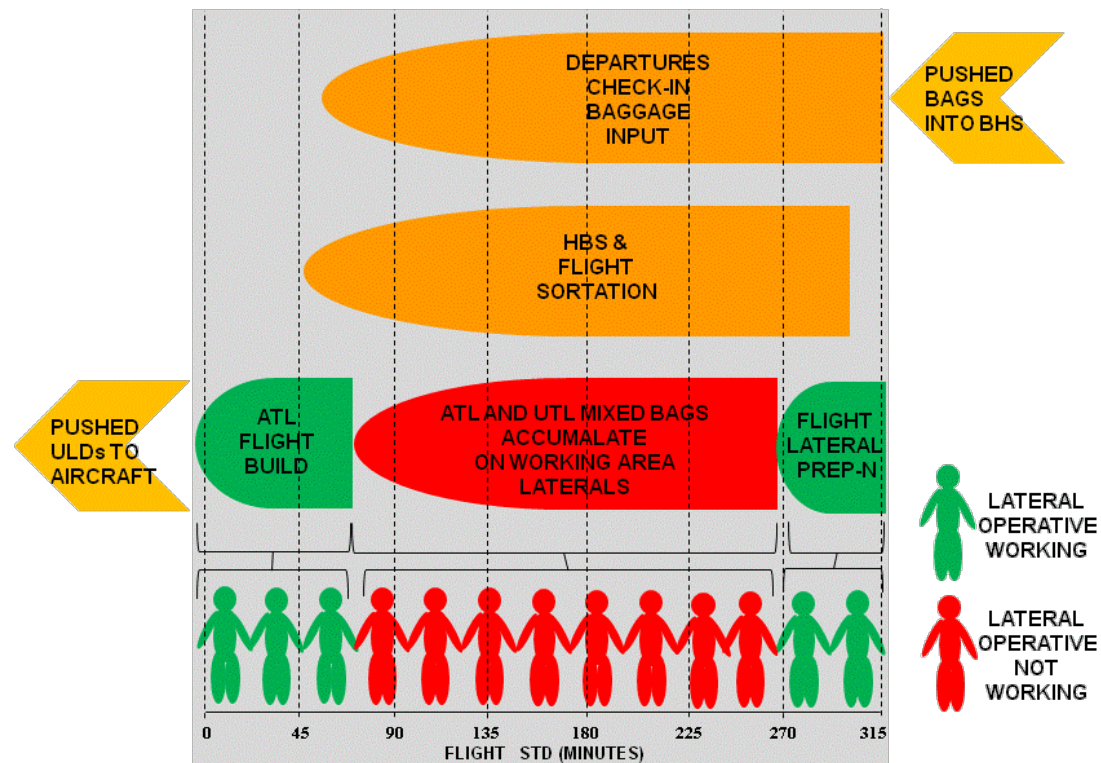
Airlines have expanded over the decades using baggage systems which have been run by often heavily unionized workforces. Older less advanced technology baggage systems often require numerous staff to operate them. Some automatic loading systems such as robotic build can result in less staff being required. The model can only assume that it is possible to make the necessary industrial relations transitions.

Figure 3 details the inefficient use of flight lateral¹⁵ space currently witnessed with all existing baggage handling systems. The green activity is work done such as Check-in, Hold Baggage Screening, and manual BHS bag build activity. The red activity is periods where work is not being done on the baggage, and often the baggage is static in the system. This is not an efficient use of baggage handling technology / resources since there are prolonged periods of inactivity. This “pushed bag” process is also known as a conventional manual loading process where flight build is inefficient. Bags get checked in, screened and sorted to the flight output and stored for long periods on the flight lateral pending manual loading into ULD’s. This occupies a significant amount of valuable ground space and requires last minute rushed bag staffed activity to ensure that all the bags are loaded onto the flight on time.

¹⁴ The “fields of interest” researched are: (i) Financial appraisal methods; (ii) Baggage processing technology; (iii) Baggage operational processes; (iv) Capital and operating costs of BHSs, and (v) Benchmarking BHS equipment and staff benchmarking costs.

¹⁵ Flight lateral – device used to store departing baggage by flight / class segregation.

Figure 3: Conventional “push” baggage system (departures & transfer function), steps 1D to 5D & steps 1T to 2T.



Automatic loading technologies could be used in any airport of any size. The model will be used to determine if it is financially appropriate to deploy this equipment for a specific capacity. Robotic technology is expensive to install and technically complex and bulky. The equipment is well proven though and robust following extensive development and live baggage trials conducted in Amsterdam Airport from 2002.

There is semi-automatic baggage loading equipment such as the Teleair RTT (brand name) units. The main difference with these units compared to the robotic (fully automatic) baggage loading solution is that these units each require an operator to manipulate the bag loading head unit.

Figure 4 defines the break points when it is appropriate to build baggage automatically.

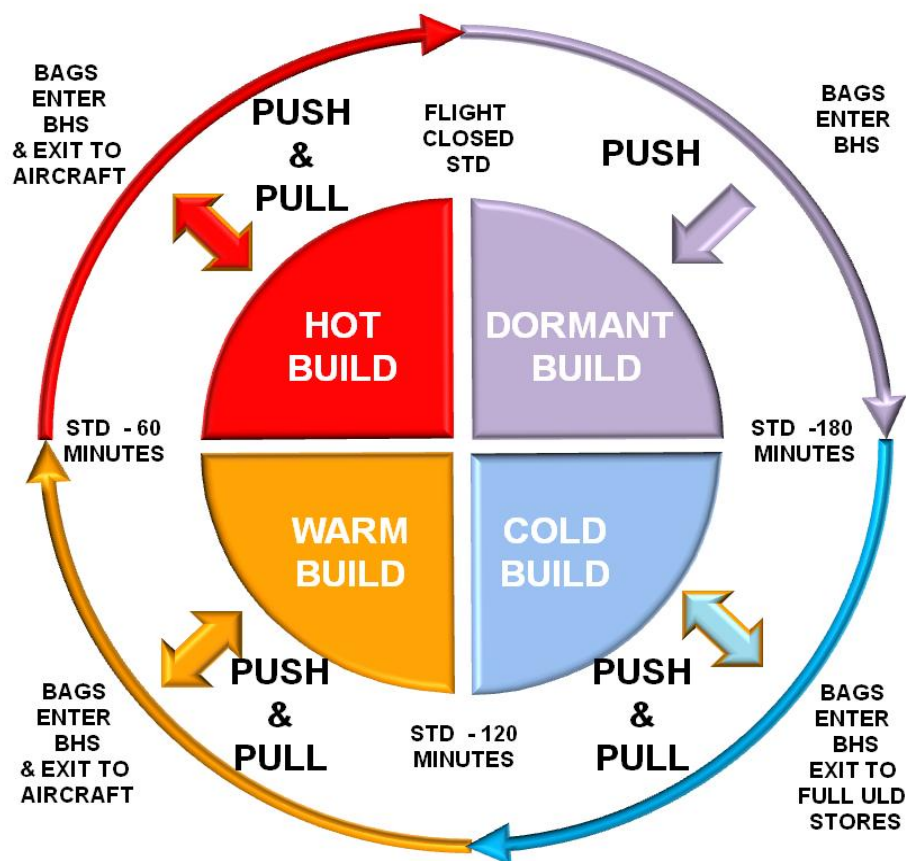
Hot Build = Too late for automated baggage build due to build cycle time

Warm Build = Time critical automated baggage builds

Cold Build = Non time critical automated baggage builds

Dormant Build= Too early or insufficient data or resources to build baggage automatically

Figure 4: Real time push/pull automated bag build philosophy



In the above automatic build process the baggage system pulls the bags from the bag store in batches and matches them and builds them automatically into the available empty ULDs. This is a very efficient use of space and resources.

1.8 Introduction: baggage processes

The original push operating model concept of processing departures baggage Figure 3 is defined by the steps that follows:-

Step 1D¹⁶ Hold baggage is checked in. This can be either a self-service process or a staff assisted process. Baggage is weighed and labelled and security questions are answered.

Step 2D Hold baggage which have a poor quality label or baggage identification problems are dealt with by either the BHS controls, or by an operator manually, this ensures that flight and passenger identifications match appropriately.

Step 3D Hold baggage is transferred to the hold baggage screening process where high security risk baggage is separated from low / no risk baggage. Low/no risk baggage is permitted to proceed to the flight sortation process, or early baggage storage process.

Step 4D Some BHSs permit early baggage to be stored until such time as it can be processed by the flight sortation system. This baggage is then released when the flight opens.

Step 5D With a manual category A baggage sortation system, IATA (2004) where hold baggage has cleared screening, and where the bag has the appropriate label details, the baggage is permitted to progress to flight sortation. Flight sortation usually

¹⁶ Step #D denotes step number # of the Departures baggage process

occurs when the flight is open. This is usually 120 minutes before standard time of flight departure (STD-120). At this point all the baggage is directed onto racetrack¹⁷ unit(s). Airline handlers then, manually sort the baggage by reading the label. The process is manually intensive, and prone to human error due to label / flight identification reading errors. The final process is to manually unload baggage from the BHS, and then positively confirm the security status of each piece of luggage. This often involves the airline handler lifting the bag, and twisting their body to load baggage into the ULDs. It is this final process where the lifting and twisting occurs that creates the adverse health and safety problems, and where low bag loading/flight build rates exist.

Step 5.1D With Category B and C , IATA (2004) BHSs, where hold baggage has cleared screening and where the bag has the appropriate label details, the baggage is permitted to progress to flight sortation. Flight sortation usually occurs when the flight is open. This too is usually at STD-120. Often at this point the BHS has chute(s)¹⁸, or flight lateral(s)¹⁹ allocated to the flight.

Step 6D Baggage is then taken by airside vehicle (baggage tug) to the aircraft side ready for loading into the aircraft.

Step 7D Baggage is loaded into the aircraft once it has been confirmed that the passenger manifest, and BHS input and output records reconcile with one another.

¹⁷ Racetrack: Rotating conveyor device that stores ATL baggage pending flight build.

¹⁸ Chute: Inclined steel framed roller bed that will statically store outbound ATL baggage pending flight build.

¹⁹ Flight lateral: Horizontal powered conveyor or unpowered rollerbed that will statically store outbound ATL baggage pending flight build.

This process is known as “AAA reconciliation”.

Smaller commercial aircraft are typically those less than or equal to ICAO Code C. Usually with few exceptions, these smaller aircraft have loose loaded baggage which is manually unloaded from the loose load baggage cart and transferred into the aircraft baggage hold.

The medium and large aircraft are typically those equal to or greater than those classified by ICAO Code D, E and F. These larger aircraft utilize containerized (ULD) hold baggage equipment. The ULDs are built in the baggage hall, and lifted and positioned into the aircraft hold, and removed at the destination airport.

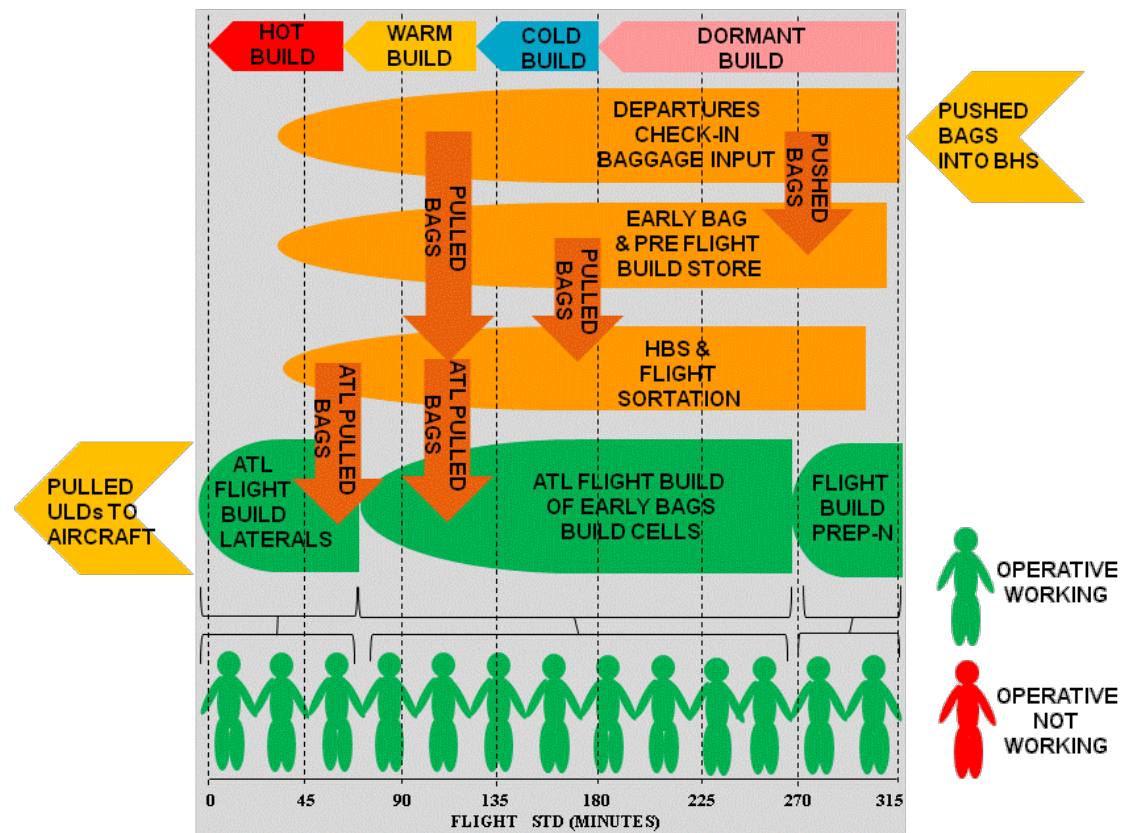
The current concept for processing transferring baggage is as follows:-

Step 1T²⁰ Baggage is removed from the aircraft hold either within ULD containers, or as loose loaded baggage. Loose loaded baggage is removed individually and placed into waiting baggage carts. The baggage carts or ULD containers are then driven to the airport BHS hall. Then in both instances the transfer baggage is separated from the arriving baggage manually.

Step 2T Transfer baggage is then injected into the departures processes at step 2D and then dealt with as departures baggage.

²⁰ Step #T denotes step number # of the Transfer baggage process

Figure 5: Advanced semi and fully automated build BHS (departures & transfer functions), steps 1D to 5D & steps 1T to 2T, push & pull operating model



1.9 Thesis structure

Chapter 1 provides an introduction to the research and describes the resultant research aim and objective questions that have emerged from the review of literature. Chapter 1 proposes that to answer the aims, and objectives of the PhD, it was necessary to create a model environment, and complete a series of experiments.

Chapter 2 examines the referenced academic, and industry research papers that have been obtained following study of the core, and surrounding literature material that has been identified. Capital financial appraisal methods are examined for relevance, baggage processing technologies, and processes are investigated, as are the baggage operational processes that are needed within current established, and recently introduced BHS solutions used worldwide. Chapter 2 describes the new fully

automatic flight build technology option that has recently emerged, and what the perceived benefits are. Chapter 2 also defines common terminology that is referred to throughout the thesis.

Chapter 3 identifies the baggage handling technologies which exist, and those that are referenced within the model. The processing rate capabilities of all of the components that have been referenced within the model are given. The area of each of the baggage system components that are referenced is provided.

Chapter 4 describes, and explains the operational methodology used to answer the research aim. The analytical technique which creates realistic bags/hour demand profiles for the various long haul and short haul flight schedule demand scenarios is defined.

Chapter 5 clarifies how the capital and operating costs of the baggage handling equipment and the building is calculated, and the calculation and logic that defines the WLCC NPV calculation. This Chapter also describes the experiments, and the rationale behind them, that has ultimately answered the research aim.

Chapter 6 details, and itemises the results that have been obtained from the experiments using the model, and provides graphical representation of the results.

The penultimate Chapter 7 provides a discussion of the main findings from within the context of the researched literature. This Chapter also provides an analysis of the results, and a detailed explanation of how it answers the research question.

Chapter 8 contains the overall conclusion statements that relate to the study area, summarising the key points, and provides concluding recommendations. This Chapter suggests additional avenues of investigation that could be of use to the aviation industry, and highlights the limitations of the research with respect to health and safety issues.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Literature review introduction

The purpose of this Chapter is to explain what existing relevant literature exists in the research field. This Chapter also defines key concepts, and terminology that are referenced throughout this thesis. The literature review process identified 183 articles which were obtained from published academic journals, technical books, and published papers. The literature review identified the operational requirements stated by ICAO in Annex 17, and by IATA, in the Resolutions Manual, that a piece of hold baggage should only be built, when the airline has allocated the bag the status known as ATL²¹. The review identified the IATA (2004) Airport Development Reference Manual recommended processes, and equipment used within the design of BHSs. The review also identified the alternative financial appraisal techniques (FAT) models which can be used to compare capital developments.

This Chapter consists of nine main sections. The first section defines the financial appraisal methods that are used by airport operators, and development managers when evaluating the viability of airport system solutions. The second section explains what baggage processing technology is available, and how these technologies are categorized by the aviation industry. The third section details the established practice, and the latest practice BHS processes that are in operation across the world. Section four looks at what information has been published on capital, and operating costs of BHSs. The fifth section provides an insight to the equipment utilisation dilemmas that surround the use of semi-automated, and fully automated baggage loading

²¹ ATL abbreviation, Authorised to load: status set by the airlines that permits hold baggage to be loaded into containers or baggage carts.

components, and the sixth section explains the new technology challenges. Section seven explains the processing time that is needed to build a ULD device using manual build. Section eight explains the time cycle issues that surround the processing of automated build. Finally section nine provides a conclusion to this Chapter.

2.2 Financial appraisal methods

Baggage handling systems are expensive to build, and to operate. Airport operators use financial appraisal tools to understand the financial advantages, and disadvantages of capital investment options that are presented.

There are many well established financial appraisal tools and metrics that can be considered, such as; net present value (NPV²²), Nopper and Hompel (2010), Purnell et al, (2012) , Briscoe , (1990), Haste Doug (2014), Barrow, (2012), weighted average cost of capital (WACC²³) Burke (2006) , internal rate of return (IRR²⁴), payback period²⁵, and earnings before interest, taxes, depreciation, and amortization (EBITDA²⁶) methods. The main parameters that are entered into these financial appraisal tools are: (i) Capital cost invested per annum; (ii) Operating cost forecasted per annum; (iii) Forecasted incremental revenue generation, realized per annum resulting from the implementation of the investment, and (iv) Asset residual values. These financial appraisal tools are often referred to as financial appraisal technique

²² Net Present Value (NPV) - This is a discounted cash flow (DCF) technique. The NPV of project is the summation of the initial investment, and the present day values of the future cash flows established using a discount rate. The NPV value that is generated is the WLCC profit from the project.

²³ Weighted Average Cost of Capital - This is a method that can calculate the minimum financial income that is required to be earned on an asset.

²⁴ Internal Rate of Return (IRR) - This is a DCF technique as described by NPV, the discount rate used will achieve an NPV which equates to zero (at the break even point).

²⁵ Payback Period - Payback period the period of time required for the return on an investment to repay the cost of the original investment.

²⁶ Earnings before interest, taxes, depreciation, and amortization (EBITDA) - A cash flow tool that uses costs and revenue earnings before the deduction of interest, expenses, taxes, depreciation, and amortization.

(FAT) tools; FAT tools are widely used in commercial industry, including the airport development sector. Examples of the use of these models have been seen within the researched literature of Brathen et al (2000), Vasigh et al, (1998), and the BAA airport finance department, (2007). Whilst FAT tools can predict cash flow outcomes, it is widely acknowledged that FAT tools have limitations. They cannot be used to predict the operational viability of a product or service, merely the financial ramifications resulting from an expected pre-known product or service performance. Cost of borrowing assumptions as seen in the paper by Brathen et al (2000) and Turner and Morrell, (2003) can have a significant effect on the predicted financial viability of compared options. Asset residual values need to be declared at the end of commercial evaluation period.

The capital cost of baggage handling equipment varies from supplier to supplier, and from region to region of the world. Benchmarking of equipment costs, as seen in the papers by Francisa et al, (2002), Wood, (2010), and Unwin, (2009) have been used to create a generic equipment cost database.

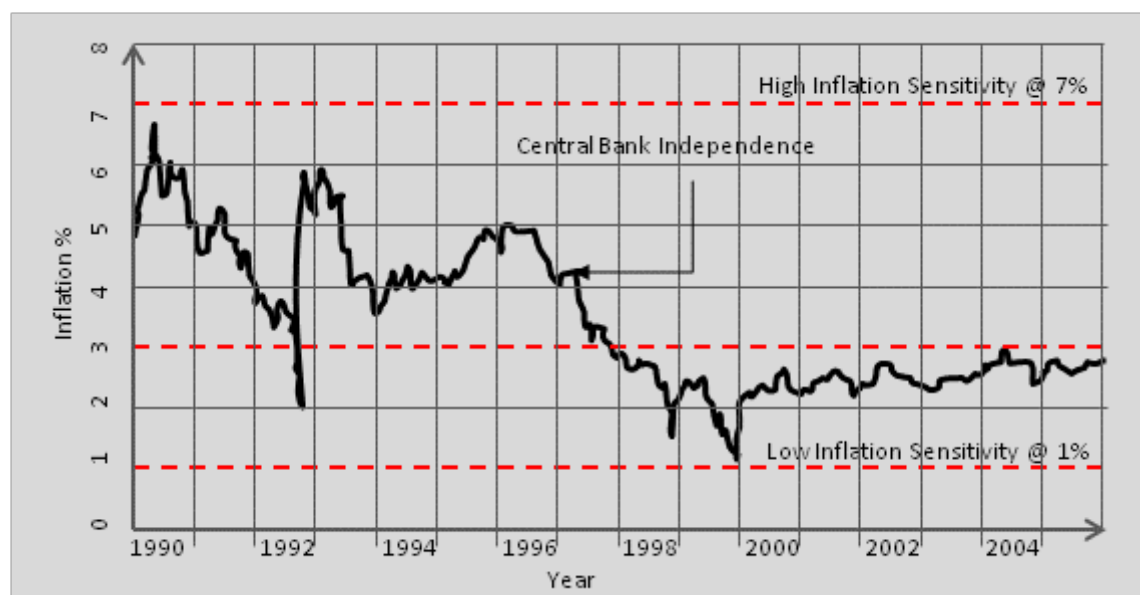
The operating cost of BHSs also varies from system to system, depending on the system capacity, the type of components that is used, the resultant size of the BHSs, and the quantity of staff that are used. The region of the world where the baggage system is to operate also dictates the regional staff salary variances, and the energy commodity prices. These factors are explained in section 2.5, and are programmed into the model. Major airport operators use FAT tools which calculate the IRR, EBITDA, and WLCC NPV when considering any major capital development.

2.2.1 Inflation ranges

Baggage handling systems operate over many years, indeed in some instances over many decades. It then follows that the capital, and the operating costs of these BHSs need to take into consideration the effects of inflation over prolonged periods, as described by Gürkaynak S, et al (2010). Inflation can have a significant effect on the outturn cost of a BHS project, and it is for this reason that inflation must be taken into account during the experimentation stage. The model has been subjected to three inflation rates during the experimentation stage, these are inflation rates of: 1% (low inflation), 3% (base inflation), and 7% (high inflation). Recent UK historic inflation ranges were stated by Gürkaynak S, et al (2010), see Figure 6, which relate to statistics originally generated by the UK Office of National Statistics. UK inflation statistics are referenced as the model generates all capital and operating costs in £'sterling as the base currency.

Figure 6: Inflation Sensitivity: “The evolution of far-ahead forward inflation compensation in the United Kingdom, 1990– 2005.”

Source: Gürkaynak S, Levin Andrew, Swanson Eric (2010)



2.3 Baggage processing technology

The technology used in airports to check-in, transport, security screen, and sort departing hold baggage is constantly evolving. IATA, (2004), categorises these technologies into three main codes of baggage systems. These codes are defined as:

(i) Category A: Baggage systems which process relatively low baggage flow rates of less than 999bags/hour. They use comparatively low complexity technology, often encompassing manual sortation systems as identified by Abdelghanya, (2006).

(ii) Category B: These baggage systems process bag flow rates within the range of 1000bags/hour to 4999bags/hour. To process these higher rates reliably, it is necessary to employ automated sortation technology such as tilt tray sorter equipment; as the flow rate reaches the maximum flow rate range, the use of directly controlled vehicle (DCV) technology is recommended by IATA (2004). There are many airports worldwide which use these technology solutions. An example of the DCV technology is referenced within the paper relating to Denver airport automated baggage handling system prepared by SITA, (2008), and the sorter technology referenced within the paper relating to Paris Charles de Gaulle airport prepared by Ott, (2009).

(iii) Category C: These are baggage systems categorised by the highest baggage flow of greater than 4999bags/hour. With these bag flow rates it is necessary to use high quality sortation system technology. DCV equipment is recommended by IATA, (2004) for these, often very large, airport baggage systems.

The IATA best practice guidelines were developed, and published in 2004. The Category B and C system guidelines do not reference leading edge technologies that can be described as automated “build cells”²⁷. These include the robotic solutions as defined by ISO8373 in International Organization for Standardization (1994), and automated baggage containerisation, “bagtruck”, technologies as described by Robuste and Daganzo, (1992). Category C high baggage flow rate sorter system equipment is evident in many airport developments, and live baggage system halls, as noted by Rijsenbrij and Ottjes, (2007).

Automated build cells, such as the robotic solutions used in Amsterdam airport noted in the paper composed by Samola, (2008), benefit considerably from the use of single handler operation. There are legislative limitations in Europe to the use of a single handler across any commercial European airports. European Union, (1996) legislation imposes restrictions on the airport companies in this regard. The practical advantages of using a single handler for management of multiple automated build cells presents predominantly operational cost saving opportunities, and increased work rate opportunities to the airlines using such technology.

The IATA system category guidelines refer mainly to the mechanical systems being employed, and do not reference the Information Technology (IT) preferences as defined by SITA, (2008). All of the categories of baggage handling systems referenced by IATA, (2004) use in line hold baggage screening technology similar to that referenced by Feng, (2007), and incorporate in line hold baggage screening processes as identified by Virta, (2003).

²⁷ Build cell: zone within a baggage system used to build baggage into ULDs using robotics or mechanized build baggage loading technologies.

The baggage within conventional baggage handling systems is built using staff positioned at the output chutes²⁸, or laterals²⁹. The rate by which the staff build the flights varies as outlined by Stewart, (2010) Dolye (2010), Shortland (2010), and Cowper (2010).

2.4 Baggage operational processes

All baggage handling systems process baggage following a set of standard baggage operational processes as defined by IATA (2004). There are common baggage process schematics which define the following functions:

- (i) Baggage check-in;
- (ii) Hold Baggage Screening (HBS);
- (iii) Early baggage storage;
- (iv) Early baggage flight build;
- (v) Manual coding;
- (vi) Problem bag resolution,
- (vii) Flight sortation, and
- (viii) Flight build.

The check-in process can take many forms, such as conventional check-in desks referenced by Robuste and Daganzo, (1992), self-service kiosks/bag drops and remote check-in (including home/downtown/railhead check-in) as noted by Business Travel News Weekly (2007). All of these forms of check-in, with the exception of remote home check-in, incorporate common user terminal equipment (CUTE) as noted by Hamzawi, (1992). The CUTE check-in technology increases the efficiency of the use

²⁸ Chute: 20-45 degree roller bed device that stores departing hold baggage by flight and segregation.

²⁹ Lateral: horizontal conveyor device that stores departing hold baggage by flight and segregation.

of check-in resources, and provides the flexibility for an airport to allocate, and then reallocate a check-in desk position to any airline rapidly throughout the operational day. This is done by providing common airline systems, and dynamic airline / flight identity signage.

The Hold Baggage Screening (HBS) process is used to comply with national aviation legislation, which originates from the ICAO Annex 17 standard. The process involves the X-ray screening of hold baggage whilst the baggage is in transit. National authorities, and IATA, (2004) state which best practice HBS processes that should be used. HBS can be completed using X-ray screening processes as denoted by Feng, (2007) and Computer Tomography process technologies, and parameters denoted by Kelly and Rongfang, (2005) also by using equipment as defined Jacobson et al, (2003).

Early baggage storage (EBS) systems have two main functions. The first function is to hold bags that have been inserted into the baggage system in advance of the flight being ready for build. The second function is to prepare batches of bags that are to be built as outlined by Oehjo, (2010), or by using robotics as reported by Samola, (2008). Section U4 of the IATA (2004) airport development reference manual details the processes used in conventional early baggage systems. The operational processes described in this manual are the de facto current standard. The second function is not referenced within the IATA manual, as this process was developed after the publication date of the IATA manual.

Manual flight sortation is carried out using racetrack/reclaim sorter units, and is a manually intensive process. Automatic flight sortation is carried out using tilt tray sorter product, as defined by Sorak, (2007), or DCV technology as outlined by Justin et al, (2005), and Tarău et al (2011). These units use the data on the baggage labels, and then automatically route baggage to the correct flight output device such as a lateral units or chute units.

2.5 Capital and operating costs of baggage systems

2.5.1 Capital costs

The capital cost of a baggage handling system is a summation of the costs of the baggage system components needed to process the forecasted demand. Benchmarked baggage system component capital costs are available from Wood, (2010), Unwin, (2009), Feng, (2007), Mackenzie-Williams, (2005), and Byrd and Cochran, (2007). With the exception of the data from Wood (2010), the remaining data is quite old and relates to conventional baggage handling systems equipment only sold within the UK. This data has now been refreshed, and includes the newer automated build technologies, such as robotics, as noted by Husted and Broderick, (2006). The cost of a baggage system shall also vary according to the quantity, type and manufacturer of the baggage handling equipment used.

The forecasted demand is influenced considerably by the capacity of the aircraft stands that support, and surround the baggage hall. The maximum forecasted demand shall be achieved if the stand utilization is optimized, as explained by Haghani, and Chen, (1998). Baggage demand is usually forecasted using theoretical demand

models. Kelly and Rongfang, (2005) use a stand planning model which dictates the aircraft codes that can be accommodated on the apron simultaneously. The number of passengers on these aircraft, are then multiplied by the bag to passenger ratio. This then defines the potential maximum baggage flow rate demand forecast that the baggage system must be able to deal with. The capital cost of the baggage handling system can be represented as an equation, as documented by Wen-Hsien, and Lopin Kuo, (2004) and Jacobson et al, (2003).

2.5.2 Operating costs

The quantity of mechanized components, and in particular the quantity of automated build components, instead of conventional build components shall determine the number of handler operatives, and the operational maintenance team, that is required to support the operation of the baggage system. The overall baggage system operating cost calculation is outlined by Briggs, (2009). HBS staff costs are also a significant operating cost which must be accounted for, as outlined by Butler and Poole, (2002). Less automatic systems are generally the preference of low cost carriers, the operating costs of which are reported by Tsoukalas et al, (2008). Manual baggage systems are often operated by single or multiple handling agent companies as they are essentially manual sortation processes where the operator pulls a bag off of a system. More complex automated baggage handling systems generally tend to favor the use of the single handler operation if the maximum efficiencies are to be obtained. In both manual, and automatic systems, and within the confines of the jurisdiction of European Union, the law imposes restrictions on the use of a single handler. Tardy, (2007), and SH&E, (2002) have reported the costs of single ground handling operations. A baggage system which needs to be operated by multiple handlers can be

significantly more expensive to build, and to operate. In addition to this, staff costs vary considerably from country to country both within, and outside of the EU.

Airline operating costs have been documented in the papers produced by Alamdari et al, (1997), Sarkis, (2000), Banker et al (1993), Franke (2004), and Forsyth et al (2011). These papers use estimated and generalized annual staff salaries. All of the salaries quoted are specific to the region of the world that the paper is written at a historic period in time. It is necessary to be able to adjust this staff cost to any region of the world using regional data adjustment factors as defined by IATA (2004), and to be able to apply present day staff costs. This enabled the FAT tool to produce meaningful present day (Quarter 4, 2011) financial output assessments.

2.6 New technology challenges

This section explains what physical, and social challenges exist when trying to implement the new pull BHS process technologies, and how this will present challenges to airports, and airlines that are trying to reduce capital and operating costs.

The semi-automated, and the fully automated baggage build components both require substantial supporting conveyor hardware (input queuing conveyors, and output conveyors) to enable them to operate effectively; they also require the upstream bag store process to be positioned within a specified distance from the g1, and g2 components. Ideally the input to the components g1, and g2 should be no more than 2 minutes bag travel time away Oehjo.D, (2010), from the output from the baggage store process. This is required to ensure that the g1, and g2 components have the

minimum downtime between ULD build cycles. To enable the g1, and g2 components to be fully occupied, and to have the minimum amount of build errors it is necessary to release a full batch of bags for a particular ULD, that have already been volumetrically scanned, and so it is pre-confirmed upon arrival at the g1/g2 cells that all bags in the bag batch can theoretically fit into the prescribed ULD, or loose load container. This constraint places considerable pressure on designers that are trying to position this equipment within BHS halls, particularly if it is an existing BHS building.

Another very real challenge is that baggage handlers can view the use of semi-automated, and fully automated build technologies as a threat upon their job security. This in turn can create a reluctance to use, and / or specify such technologies, as per the robotic systems specified at Amsterdam airport, Samola Betty, (2008). To combat this “people issue” it is necessary to engage the workforce, and use the opportunity to up skill workers to do more rewarding tasks.

The pull processes that are associated with the use of new semi-automatic build, and fully automatic build technologies have installation, commercial, and potentially social impact issues. The social impact issue associated with the implementation of these types of technology is not part of the scope of this research. The reasons why this issue has been excluded from the investigation are:

- (i) There is no published information in this regard that can be analyzed;
- (ii) There are only two installations in the world where this equipment has been installed so far, and only one (AMS) is currently operational;

- (iii) Arguably the performance of the fully automatic solution is not affected by social impact issues as the machines build the flight automatically without human intervention (excludes fault fixing and topping up processes).

The physical installation, and resulting commercial impact are investigated in the following Chapters.

2.7 Manual build processing time

This section explains how long it takes to process 40 bags into a commonly used AKE³⁰ IATA (2004) ULD container using a single operative, and a set of prescribed manual flight build components.

The time it takes to manually build a ULD or loose load container is a function of:

- (i) the number bags to be inserted within a prescribed ULD or loose load baggage cart, e.g. 40 bags / AKE ULD – IATA (2004);
- (ii) the manual processing rate of the staff (See Appendix G – staff data base) that lift bags from the manual racetrack component (e.g. 2 bags/min/operator sustainable rate), and place them into a ULD or loose load container. This includes the time taken to complete the ATL reconciliation process;
- (iii) the time taken to process one bag is denoted by the steps:

Step 1 Hand held flight bar code scan	5 seconds
Step 2 Walk bag to ULD	5 seconds
Step 3 Manual Flight Build	20 seconds
Total time to process 1 bag	30 seconds

³⁰ AKE: Definition - The IATA coding name given to the most common ULD size. This ULD size also goes by the former name of LD3.

At the above rate a single staff baggage build loader could take 20 minutes to build a single AKE ULD. Appendix G provides staff loading performance data from multiple sources. The rate that an operator can load baggage can vary enormously from person to person, and from country to country. For this reason the staff processing rate used is an average obtained from multiple airlines, and airport operators; the manual build rate is one of the test sensitivities that has been applied to the model.

2.8 Automated build processing time

This section explains how long it takes to process 40 bags into a commonly used AKE IATA (2004) ULD container using either (i) a single robotic g1 Samola Betty, (2008) component, or (ii) a single semi-automated RTT g2 component.

The time it takes to semi-automatically build a ULD or loose load container is a function of:

- (i) the number bags to be inserted within a prescribed ULD or loose load baggage cart, e.g. 40 bags / AKE ULD – IATA (2004);
- (ii) the processing rate of the semi-automatic loading device is 6 bags/minute/unit.

This includes the time taken to complete the ATL reconciliation process.

- (iii) the time taken to process one bag is denoted by the steps:

Step 1 Flight bar code scan	2 seconds
Step 2 RTT Flight Build	8 seconds
Total time to process 1 bag	10 seconds

At the above rate a single semi-automatic baggage build component could take 6.7 minutes to build a single AKE ULD. This ULD build rate is dependent upon staff motivation, however staff fatigue associated with physically lifting bags is reduced/removed.

The time it takes to fully automatically build a ULD or loose load container is a function of:

- (i) the number bags to be inserted within a prescribed ULD or loose load baggage cart, e.g. 40 bags / AKE ULD – IATA (2004);
- (ii) the processing rate of the fully-automatic loading device is 4 bags/minute/unit. This includes the time taken to complete the ATL reconciliation process.

- (iii) Where time taken to process one bag is denoted by the steps

Step 1 Flight bar code scan	2 seconds
Step 2 Robot Flight Build	13 seconds
Total time to process 1 bag	15 seconds

At the above rate a single fully automatic robotic baggage build component could take 10 minutes to build a single full AKE ULD. This build rate is not reliant on staff motivation. It should be noted that currently the robotic solution requires the last 3-4 bags within a container to be manually built, as the robotic arm cannot often insert these last few bags into the ULD if they have a ceiling on the ULD, which is predominantly the case.

Clearly operationally the semi-automatic build technology offers the highest throughput rate. This is working on the basis that the operator is personally motivated to point and direct this staff operated technology constantly, when compared to the fully automated robotic solution which does not need an operator to load 90% of the ULD space. Operationally the manual operator is comparatively slow, and is more susceptible to throughput variations.

2.9 Chapter summary

The literature review Chapter identified what knowledge currently exists to support the aim of the PhD, and what gaps in knowledge are present pertaining to the financial comparison of manual BHSs, and semi-automated BHSs, and Fully automatic BHSs.

It is apparent that relevant supporting information and papers exists that were of use in the development of the model, which in turn was used to answer the aim of this PhD. None of the currently published information alone answers the fundamental aim of this research.

The data obtained during the literature review stage has been documented, and is referenced within the model that is explained in the following Chapter 3. The results of the tests carried out using the model have then been assessed, and the conclusion made in Chapter 8 of this thesis.

3. MODEL ELECTRO-MECHANICAL COMPONENTS

3.1 Research questions

This Chapter explains how information obtained from the literature review process has been incorporated into the model. This chapter also provides a detailed explanation of how the model has been derived. It is proposed that by using this model, which incorporates consistent BHS component assembly logic, this produces a common platform by which to generate valuable WLCC NPV data. Such data can and has been used to help answer the PhD aim.

All BHSs contain electro-mechanical components to enable them to function. There are no off the shelf models that can be used to describe the various BHSs. Therefore to successfully construct a model it was first necessary to ask oneself a series of questions that relate to these electro mechanical systems. These questions were noted to be:

- (i) What components would be needed in a BHS environment?
- (ii) What processes and rules would be needed to describe a BHS environment?
- (iii) What data is required in a BHS environment?
- (iv) What BHS technologies should be assessed in a BHS environment?

A BHS model environment is proposed, and constructed to fundamentally answer question 1. The model consistently assembles BHSs using best practice guidelines from IATA (2004), and is supported by real capital cost, and energy consumption, and maintenance running cost data for the selected BHS components. The model provides

a tool that enables any BHS capacity, location, and common equipment to be compared consistently for incremental BHS throughput demands.

The model incorporates a WLCC NPV calculation module which is the metric used to define which BHS solution is determined to be the best (first ranked), next best (second ranked), and least best (third ranked).

The model allows test results to be produced in the knowledge that the approach, and assumptions defined in this Chapter are consistently applied and are independent of distorting factors such as, though not limited to:

- (i) varying profit margins applied to BHS developments (buildings and BHS);
- (ii) the impact associated with developing a BHS into an existing baggage hall, and being able to realistically extract factually accurate costs for a truly accurate comparison.

3.1.1 What components would be needed in a BHS environment?

There are many component types that can be used in a BHS, from baggage input check-in conveyors to baggage output laterals. The components that have been selected and referenced within the model are the most common components, as described by IATA (2004) within the Chapter U of the Airport Development Reference Manual. The exception to these IATA referenced components, are the ULD movement devices (Component f2 ULD Powered Rollerbed), the robotic build devices (Component g1 Robotic Build Cell), and the semi-automated build device (Component g2 RTT (Teleair) Semi-automated build Cell).

3.1.2 What processes and rules would be needed to describe a BHS environment?

During the literature review stage, the commonly used “push based” BHS processes, and the “pull based” BHS processes, considered to be “cutting edge” BHS processes, were identified (see section 1.8). These generic level processes do not however provide sufficient detail to enable a BHS to be specified in detail. Overview and detailed level process schematics were then developed, which align to the requirements of both push based systems for the manual BHS solution (see Figure 67 and Figure 68), and the pull based semi-automatic BHS (see Figure 70 and Figure 71), and the pull based fully automatic (see Figure 73 and Figure 74) BHSs. The selection of components that were used within the model is set by rules that cross reference to these process maps.

3.1.3 What data is required in a BHS environment?

To enable a BHS environment to be constructed within a model, it is necessary to construct the BHS components within the model, bottom up. That is, every major component that is needed to convey the demand must have:

- (i) Component throughput performance bag/min rate;
- (ii) Capital costs;
- (iii) Energy consumption parameters;
- (iv) Maintenance cost variables and;
- (v) Footprint area,

for each of the BHS types. Appendix C is the equipment dbase worksheet, this contains all of the data needed for each of the components listed within section 3.3.1.

3.1.4 What BHS technologies should be assessed in a BHS environment?

The common departures BHS technologies defined by IATA (2004) in Chapter U of the Airport Development Reference Manual have been referenced within the model. The IATA manual went to press before the newer pull process technologies were readily available. It is necessary to include these additional semi and fully automated flight build technologies (see Figure 24 and Figure 25) as they are fundamental to the aim of the investigation study and underpin it.

3.2 Model component equation development

3.2.1 Model structure

This section explains in detail how the model has been constructed and completed. The component blocks are discussed and details of the actual geometric forms that are programmed into the model are provided.

The model is constructed and programmed using Microsoft Excel software. It contains a series of interdependent worksheets which enable manual, semi-automatic and fully automatic BHSs and their corresponding buildings to be constructed. Examples of the rules being applied to define the quantity of components can be seen in Appendix A.

Figure 7 explains the relationship between the various worksheets present within the model, and the data flow between them. The worksheet list below provides the step by step sequence that must be followed to create the WLCC NPV data for each of the

BHS inputs being considered. A functionality statement is also provided for each worksheet.

STEP³¹ 1 Data gathering

(i) Input Variables;

Function: permits the aircraft demand profile and airport geographic location data to be entered into the model.

(ii) Gamma Distribution³²;

Function: calculates the baggage flow vs time distribution of a single flight within the model.

(iii) Peaking Factor;

Function: calculates the peak flow rate factor to multiply the bags/hour rate by, when all of the flights are assembled into an hour period flight schedule.

(iv) Country & Inflation Dbase;

Function: Reference tables used by the assembly environment, which contain the IATA CAPEX and OPEX adjustment factors – IATA (2004) Chapter D5. These values can be used to inflate or contract the CAPEX and OPEX values accordingly.

(v) Equipment Dbase;

Function: contains the BHS equipment size, cost and performance data that is referenced by the assembly environment worksheet.

(vi) Staff Dbase;

Function: reference tables used by the assembly environment worksheet, which contain the staff operating costs, and staff operating performance data.

³¹ See figure 7 for process step sequence position

³² Gamma distribution: Flow of baggage, per flight, into a baggage handling system can be predicted using the mathematical equation commonly known as the “Gamma distribution” equation.

(vii) Reference Cost Plan;

Function: reference cost plan used to calculate the project “on-costs” or preliminary costs that should be applied to the capital costs.

STEP 2 Development of the solutions

(viii) Assembly Environment;

Function: contains the design, capital cost, and operating cost BHS design logic that generates the three BHS build solutions.

(ix) WLCM;

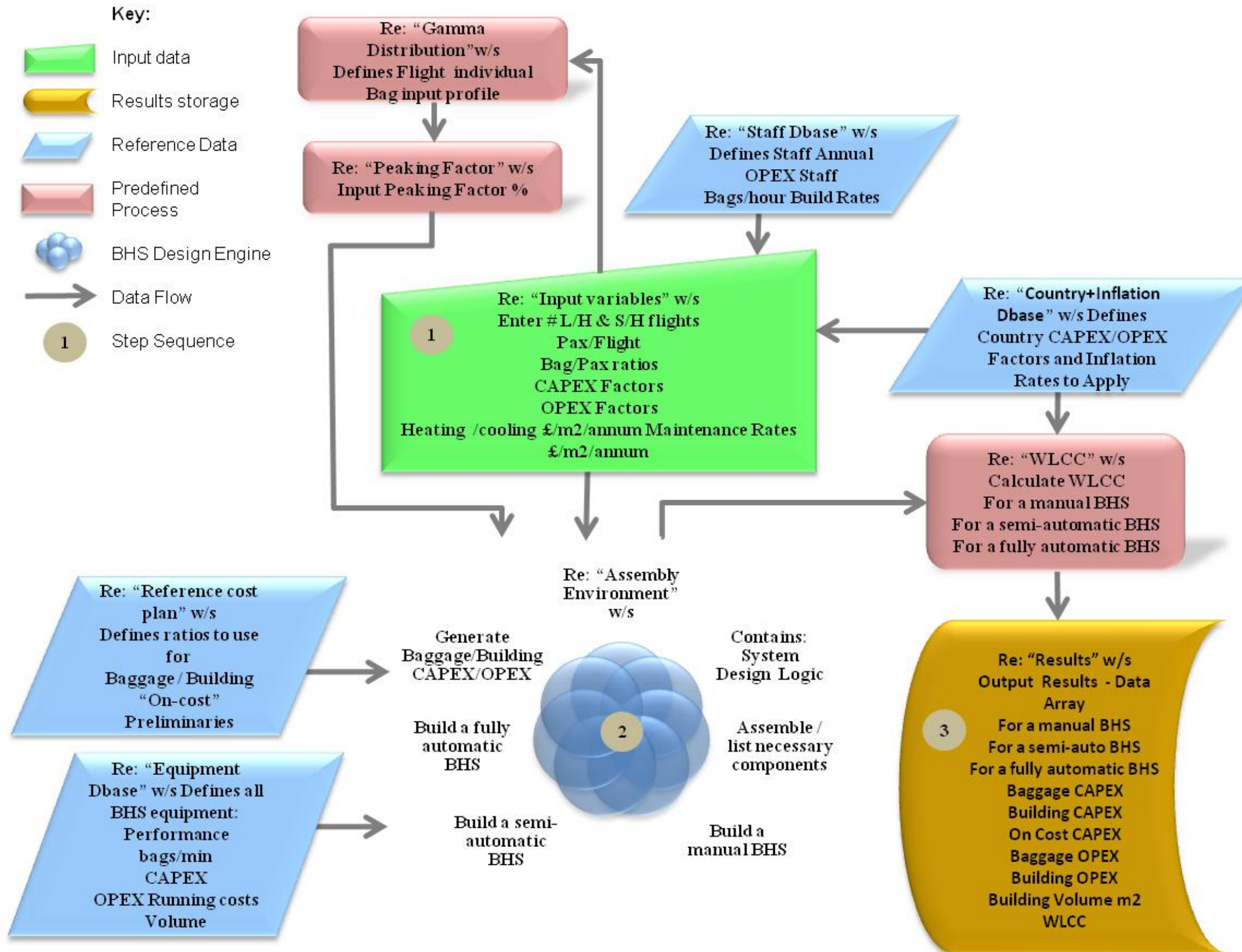
Function: references the capital and operating costs generated from the assembly environment worksheet, and creates the 15 year point whole life cycle cost.

STEP 3 Collation of the results

(x) Results.

Function: collates experimentation results data and stores this in a data array.

Figure 7: Model structure and interfaces



3.3 Model: mechanical volumetric blocks

3.3.1 Components overview

Figure 8 to Figure 25 inclusive define the set of geometric BHS equipment forms that have been programmed into the model equipment dbase worksheet, which in turn are referenced in the assembly environment worksheet. The full set of components and resources that are referenced within the model are tabulated as follows:

Table 1: Full list of model components

<u>Component ID</u>	<u>System Function</u>	<u>Sub System Technology</u>	<u>Present with following BHS</u>		
			<u>Fully Automatic</u>	<u>Semi-Automatic</u>	<u>Manual</u>
a1	Check-in	Conventional Conveyor (3x1.2m assembly)	Yes ³³	Yes	Yes
b1	Delivery	Collector Belt (1x20m)	Yes	Yes	Yes
b4	Delivery	Powered Belt Curve	Yes	Yes	Yes
c1	Early Baggage Store	Conveyor Lane Q conveyors (1x1.2m)	Yes	Yes	Yes
d1	Hold Baggage Screening	Standard 2 Level 1 Unit	Yes	Yes	Yes
d2	Hold Baggage Screening	Standard 2 Level 3 Unit 5% reject rate	Yes	Yes	Yes
d3	Hold Baggage Screening	Standard 2 Level 2 Workstation 20% reject rate	Yes	Yes	Yes
e1	Flight Sortation	Flight Lateral (1x28m)	Yes 75%	Yes 75%	No ³⁴
e3	Flight Sortation	Flight Racetracks (1x40m length unit)	No	No	Yes 100%
e9	Flight Sortation	Divert VSU	Yes	Yes	Yes
e10	Flight Sortation	Indexing	Yes	Yes	Yes
e11	Flight Sortation	Sortation induct	Yes	Yes	No
e12	Flight Sortation	Sortation loop (10m per lateral pitch needed)	Yes	Yes	No
e21	Flight Sortation	Power bus (1 off assembly) unit	Yes	Yes	Yes
e22	Flight Sortation	Scanner array	Yes	Yes	Yes
f2	Flight Sortation	ULD Powered Rollerbed	Yes	Yes	Yes
g1	Mechanized ULD Build	Robotics (Grenzbach)	Yes 25%	No	No
g2	Mechanized ULD Build	Manipulator (RTT type unit)	No	Yes 25%	No
h1	Power	Power Conditioner (1 off per facility)	Yes	Yes	Yes
h2	Power	Power Incomer (1 off per drive)	Yes	Yes	Yes
h3	Power	Motor Controllers (1 off)	Yes	Yes	Yes
h4	IT	Programmable Controller Computer	Yes	Yes	Yes
h5	IT	Programmable Controller Module	Yes	Yes	Yes
h6	IT	Programmable Controller Software (1 off system cost)	Yes	Yes	Yes
h7	IT	Sort Allocation Computer (1 off Unit and software)	Yes	Yes	Yes
h8	IT	Control System Computer and Display	Yes	Yes	Yes
h9	IT	Safety Equipment (per drive)	Yes	Yes	Yes
h10	IT	Network (per installation)	Yes	Yes	Yes
h11	IT	SCADA system (base hardware / software)	Yes	Yes	Yes
i1	Handling Agent	Manual loader (lateral /racetrack/ chute)	Yes 75%	Yes 75%	Yes 100%
i2	Handling Agent	Manual loader (Robotics support & top up)	Yes 25%	No	No
i3	Handling Agent	Manual loader (RTT)	No	Yes 25%	No
j1	Steel work	Platform (per m run)	Yes	Yes	Yes
j3	Steel work	Stairs (per ladder)	Yes	Yes	Yes
k1	Sub equipment	Fire door (per door)	Yes	Yes	Yes

³³ “Yes” denotes function present with BHS type

³⁴ “No” denotes function not present with BHS type

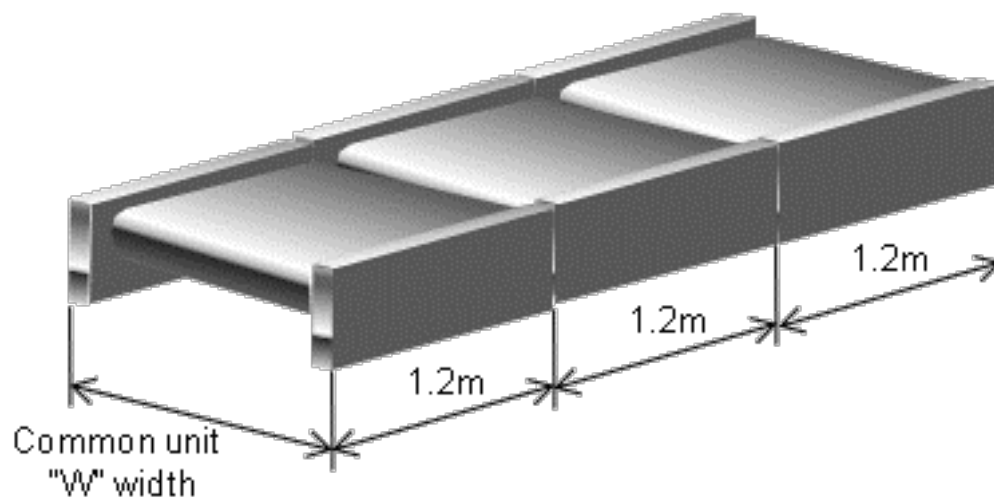
The scale and form of the components that follow have been established from the IATA (2004) Airport Development Reference Manual Chapter U. In the situation of HBS equipment a maximum equipment size has been used. With respect to the early bag store solution a lane based queue conveyor solution has been accounted for. This is represented by the use of component “c1 Early Bag Store single Q Conveyor”.

There are three considerations that should be noted with regards to the definition of the early bag store (EBS) solution used within the model:

- (i) the quantity of c1 components used within the assembly environment is calculated by multiplying the peak demand Bags/Hour rate by a set 38%, this value has been used following discussion with the BHS consultants, as most operational BHSs that use EBS solution have a EBS which holds on average 38% of the input design rate;
- (ii) there are two types of EBS solution, the lane conveyors as defined by component c1, and the crane and rack systems. The model does not account for the use of crane and rack EBS solutions. Like for like for the same sized EBS, the crane and rack EBS systems are reported by the manufacturers to occupy less space than the lane based c1 based product solution. It is for this reason that the maximum size solution has been referenced.
- (iii) to define the system specific absolute correct sized EBS it is necessary to simulate the flows that would enter the EBS, using a discrete event simulation tool. This will confirm the size of the EBS taking into account the dynamic nature of baggage flows.

3.3.2 Component a1 check-in desk conveyors

Figure 8: Component a1 check-in desk conveyors



Function: This check-in desk arrangement is used on the departures concourse of all international and departures terminal buildings. It is the main mechanism to inject and input baggage into the BHS. Passenger and staff transfer baggage input has been excluded. There are essentially two variations of check-in desks, the conventional check-in desk, which is staff assisted, and the self-service bag drop, it is assumed that both have the same bags/hour throughput rate. Volumetrically the model contains the data for the check-in desk conveyors only. The total check-in component block usually comprises of the following sub-components, as denoted by IATA (2004):

- Check-in counter (excluded³⁵ volumetrically within the model);
- Desk control panel including CUTE³⁶ displays³⁷ (excluded volumetrically within the model);
- Weighing conveyor, incorporating scales;
- Label conveyor;
- Dispatch conveyor;

³⁵ Check-in counters are excluded as they are considered to be an architectural feature.

³⁶ CUTE: Abbreviation – Common User Terminal Equipment – Airline and flight display unit mounted around the check-in desk.

³⁷ Check-in CUTE displays are excluded as they are considered to be an architectural feature.

- Label printing facilities.

Once the check-in desk is opened and operational, the check-in conveyor then accepts departures baggage demand input into the BHS in a controlled manner, as denoted in the process maps Figure 68, Figure 71, Figure 74. The check-in desk component a1 processing flow rate is a function of: (i) passenger queue management; (ii) speed of the conveyors, and (iii) time taken to manually label the departing baggage with the IATA (2004) licence plate bag tags.

The quantity of component a1 used is defined by the equation:

$$Na1 = \frac{D}{Pa1} \quad \dots 1$$

Where:

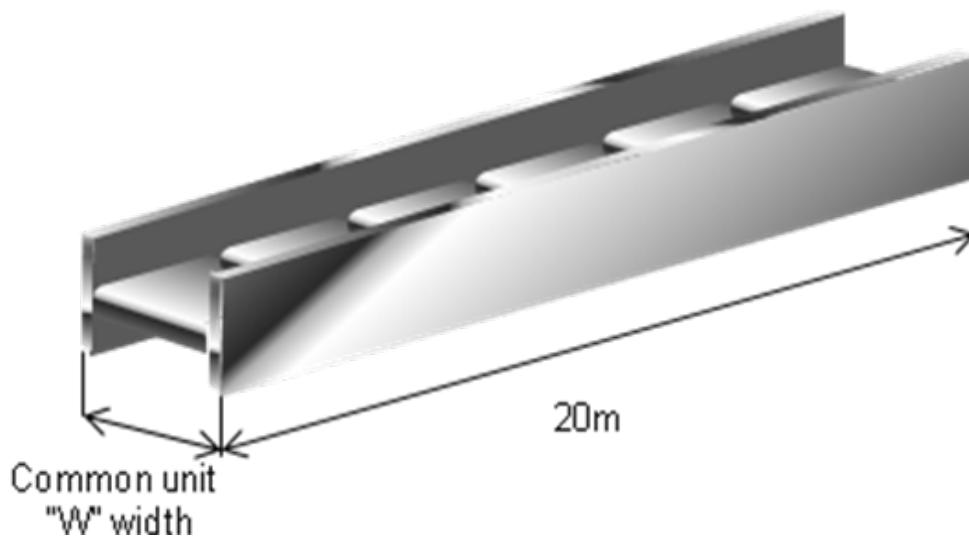
Na1 = The number of a1 components present

D = Demand = Bags/Min.

Pa1 = Processing rate of the component a1 = 0.67 Bags/Minute

3.3.3. Component b1 delivery conveyor

Figure 9: Component b1 delivery conveyor



Function: The delivery conveyor component is located after the check-in function block, as described in the processes outlined in Figure 68, Figure 71, and Figure 74. This conveyor can act as a throttle, thereby controlling the bag flow going through the entire BHS. There are essentially two types of delivery conveyor options: (i) Those where there is no controlled event discharge, and baggage injection from the check-in dispatch conveyors to the delivery conveyors is managed on a random basis, rather than by calculating free space on the delivery conveyor belt. In this situation the delivery conveyor is fitted with photocells before each check-in desk injection junction point. This reduces, though does not eliminate the possibility of baggage jams, and (ii) those where controlled event discharge is fitted and baggage injected from the check-in dispatch conveyor is controlled by the BHS PLC³⁸, this calculates the free window space on the delivery belt allowing effective injection from check-in. From a CAPEX, OPEX, and processing perspective the component b1 referenced a delivery conveyor which incorporates the controlled event discharge functionality.

The quantity of component b1 used is defined by the equation:

$$Nb1 = \frac{D}{Pb1} \quad \dots 2$$

Where:

Nb1 = The number of b1 components present

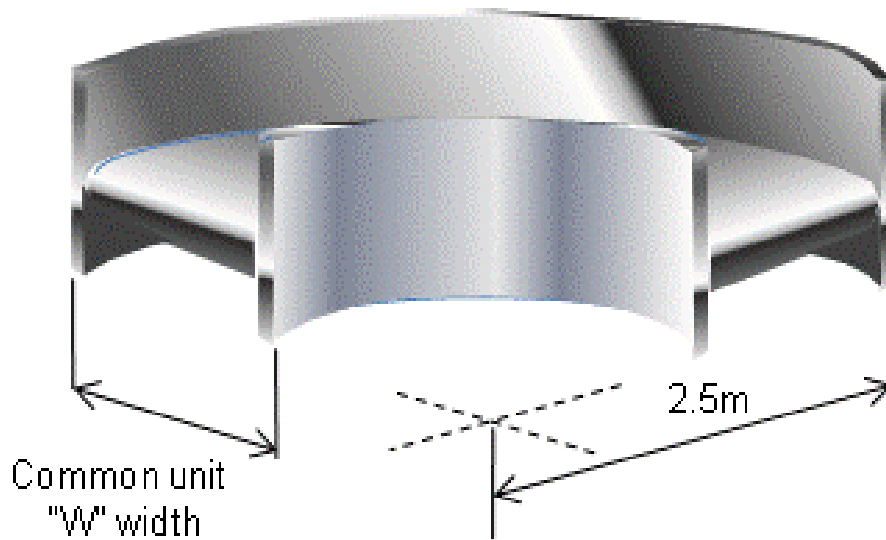
D = Demand = Bags/Min.

Pb1 = Processing rate of the component b1 = 25 Bags/Min.

³⁸ PLC: Abbreviation – Programmable Logic Controller – Computer that controls the operation of baggage conveyors.

3.3.4 Component b4 powered belt curve

Figure 10: Component b4 powered belt curve



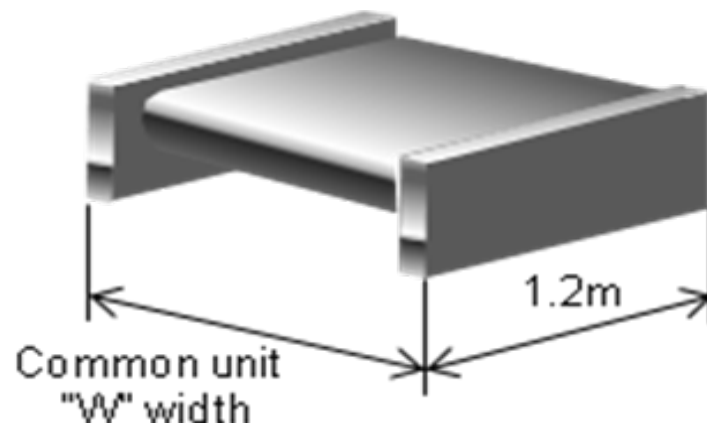
Function: The powered belt bend conveyor allows the baggage flow within all of the processes depicted within Figure 68, Figure 71, and Figure 74 to change direction smoothly. The model has been programmed to accommodate the installation of the 90 degree powered belt curve conveyor, though it should be noted that 45 and 90 degree conveyor bends are available as well as spiral incline and decline powered belt bends. These units are less commonplace, are expensive, and have not been referenced within the model. It is also possible to change flow direction using “T” or “L” junctions, though IATA (2004) note that using these types of units can often create baggage snagging points, which in turn can create undesirable bag jams. It is for this reason that these types of directional change mechanisms have also not been included within the model.

The powered belt curve component b4 is often used to weave the baggage routes through baggage hall, missing columns, and heating and ventilation equipment infrastructure. Since the model does not create a real three dimensional model of the

BHS which would contain such infrastructure, it is necessary to make an experience based judgement on the likely quantity of direction changes needed within each flow route, from the input at Check-in (component a1) through to the output at the lateral (component e1), or the output racetrack (component e3), or the output robotic cell (component g1) or the output RTT unit (component g2). The model has been programmed to calculate that for any type of BHS (manual, semi- automatic or fully automatic), ten powered belt curve component b4s are provided for each delivery line conveyor b1 that is calculated to be required. This is a realistic representation of the likely quantity of component b4s that will be required based on over 20 years of experience of these systems.

3.3.5 Component c1 early bag store single Q conveyor

Figure 11: Component c1 early bag store single Q conveyor



Function: It can be seen from Table 2 that follows that there are two types of early bag store: (i) the lane based solution as defined as in Figure 11, and (ii) the crane, and rack based solution. The lane based solution occupies more space, and consumes more energy than the alternative crane, and rack based solution, and it is for this reason that this crane and rack technology solution has been omitted from the model.

A single component c1 has the ability to store a single bag. It can be seen in Table 2 that most modern BHSs need to store³⁹, in some instances thousands of bags simultaneously. The model is not a simulation model, which would be able to dynamically determine the true simultaneous demand placed on an early bag store, as a result of a specific flight schedule demand. Instead for the static model, one must define the relationship between historic BHS demand, and historic early bag store capacity needs, as these parameters are available.

Table 2 then denotes that on average, the quantity of bags that need to be stored in the bag store, which is calculated to be 38% of the demand (bags/hour) placed within the historic BHSs. The model then uses this 38% factor when determining the size of the EBS to incorporate. This means that for any sized BHS the quantity of component c1 required is described by the equation:

$$N_{c1} = D \times 38\% \quad \dots 3$$

Where:

N_{c1} = Number of component c1 (Early Bag Store single Q Conveyor) present

D = Demand = Bags/Min.

³⁹ Bags are stored for two reasons: (i) the flight lateral or build cell is not open and bags cannot be built or (ii) to enable batching of bags in readiness to release to semi-automatic or fully automatic flight build process.

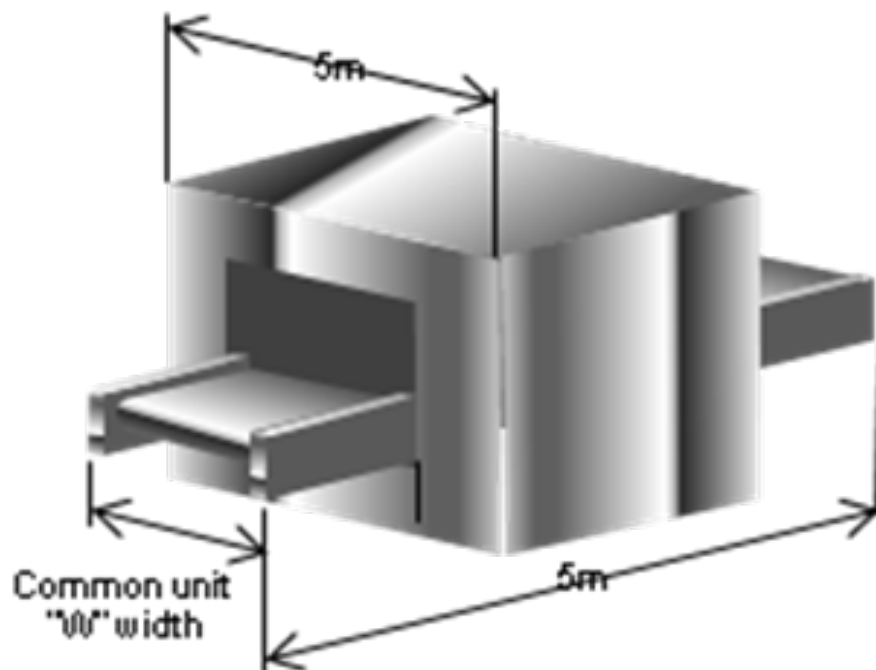
Table 2: Early bag store references

<u>IATA Category</u>	<u>Location</u>	<u>Storage Positions</u>	<u>BHS Capacity</u>	<u>(Positions / BHS Capacity) %</u>
B	Southern Europe	748	2100	36%
B	Middle Europe	2170	2800	77%
B	Middle Europe	2993	4000	75%
B	Southern Europe	1069	3900	27%
C	Middle Europe	4988	7000	71%
B	Far East	713	3500	20%
B	Middle Europe	143	1750	8%
C	Middle Europe	3421	5250	65%
C	Middle Europe	2850	6300	45%
B	Far East	713	3150	23%
C	Middle East	2850	6300	45%
B	Middle Europe	570	2800	20%
B	Northern Europe	239	1750	14%
B	Northern Europe	1603	3780	42%
B	Middle East	570	2100	27%
B	Middle Europe	385	3500	11%
Average				38%

Source: Paul Bellamy BHS Consultant (2009)

3.3.6 Component d1/d2 hold baggage screening

Figure 12: Component d1/d2 hold baggage screening



Function: The hold baggage screening (HBS) process block is defined in Figure 68, Figure 71, and Figure 74. The component d1 is the Level 1 and 2 intelligent X-ray machine, and the component d2 is the Level 3 computer tomography X-ray machine. Both of these components are designed to interrogate the contents of passengers' baggage whilst within the BHS, that is ultimately destined to be loaded into the hold of the aircraft. Those bags which fail level 1 screening proceed to Level 2 screening, those bags that clear level 1 proceed to the flight sortation process. Those bags that fail Level 2 proceed to Level 3 screening, and those bags that clear level 2 proceed to the flight sortation process. Those bags that fail Level 3 proceed to passenger reconciliation, and those bags that clear level 3 proceed to the flight sortation process. Those bags that fail passenger reconciliation are disposed of by the bomb squad, and those bags that clear passenger reconciliation then proceed to the flight sortation process.

The model has been programmed with the use of Standard 2 HBS equipment as defined by ICAO and IATA (2004).

The process described in d1 = Level 1 and 2 intelligent X-ray machine
d2 = Level 3 computer tomography X-ray machine.

Figure 13 is the recommended practice process, defined by Norman Shanks, and adopted by IATA for the screening of hold baggage, and is a tiered process as described above, where all hold baggage is first processed through the Level 1 machines (component d1), and 20% of the demand is processed through level 2 equipment (component d3), and 5% of the demand is processed through level 3 equipment (component d2).

The quantity of component d1 used is defined by the equation:

$$Nd1 = \frac{D}{Pd1} \quad \dots 4$$

The quantity of component d2 used is defined by the equation:

$$Nd2 = \frac{D \times 5\%}{Pd2} \quad \dots 5$$

Where:

Nd1= The number of d1 components present

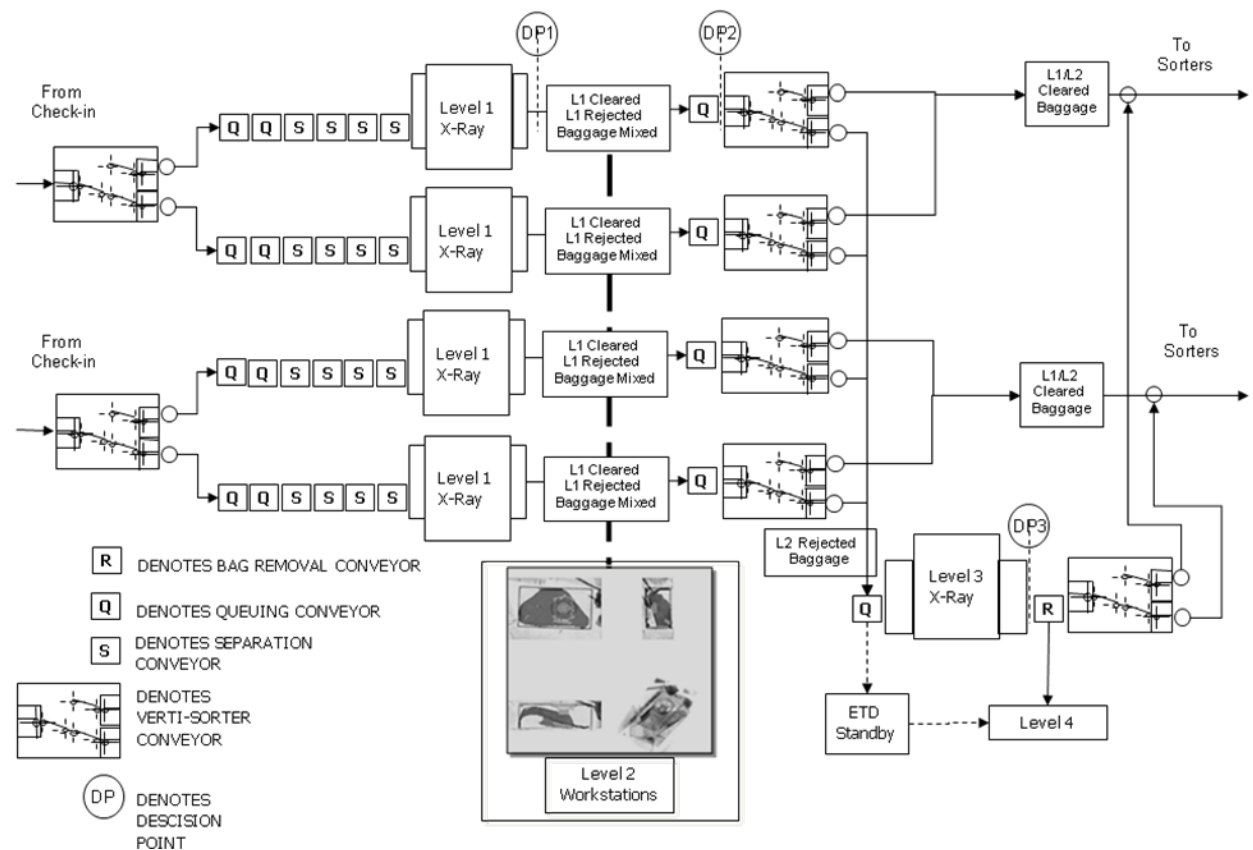
Nd2 = The number of d2 components present

D = Demand = Bags/Min.

Pd1 = Processing rate of the Level 1 & 2 Intelligent X-ray machine = 20 Bags/Min.

Pd2 = Processing rate of the Level 3 CT X-ray machine = 4 Bags/Min.

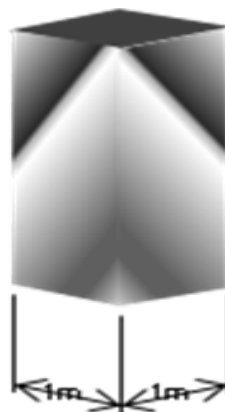
Figure 13: Standard process of hold baggage screening



Source: Norman Shanks Associates

3.3.7 Component d3 hold baggage screening level 2 workstation

Figure 14: Component d3 hold baggage screening level 2 workstation



Function: The component d3 as noted in Figure 14 defines the hold baggage screening level 2 workstation. Whilst the shape defined in Figure 14 is arguably not

representative of a typical computer workstation, the plan area that it occupies is representative.

The quantity of component d3 used is defined by the equation:

$$Nd3 = \frac{D \times 20\%}{Pd3} \quad \dots 6$$

Where:

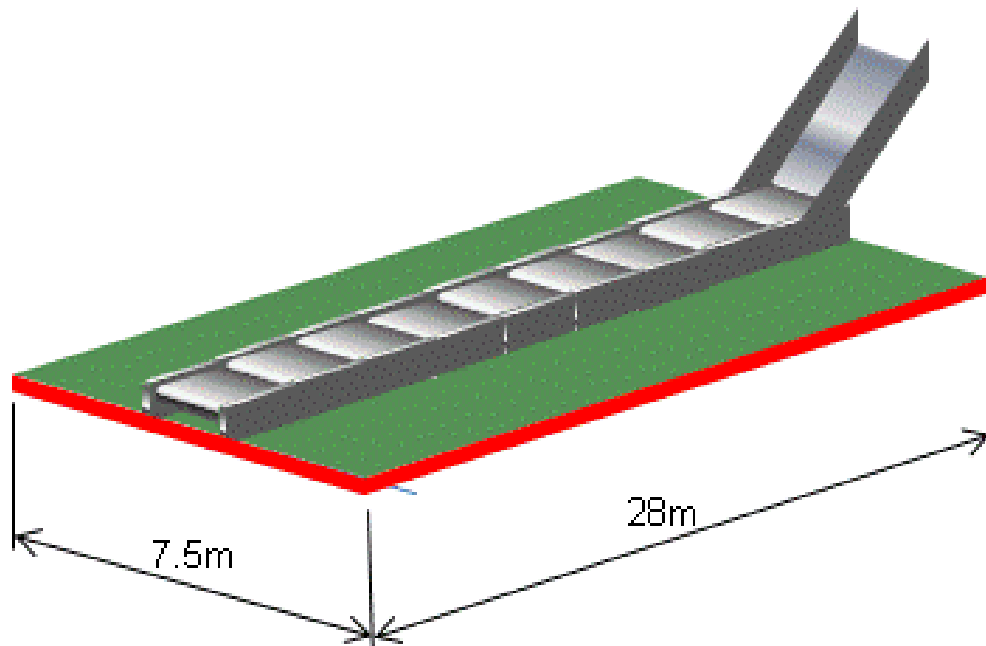
Nd3 = The number of d3 components present

D = Demand = Bags/Min.

Pd3 = Processing rate of the component d3 = 3 Bags/Min.

3.3.8 Component e1 flight lateral (1x28m)

Figure 15: Component e1 flight lateral (1x28m)



Function: The flight lateral as denoted in 3.3.8 Component e1 Flight Lateral (1x28m) seen in Figure 15, stores ATL baggage by flight number, and in some instances by flight passenger class segregation on the lateral conveyors. BHS loader staff then manually load the bags into the ULD containers. Where it is envisaged that

excessively heavy baggage will be transferred from the BHS lateral to awaiting ULDs, IATA (2004) recommend the provision of heavy baggage lifting equipment at the correct locations so that the risk of off-loading injuries on staff is minimized. From a CAPEX and OPEX perspective, the component e1 excludes the provision of such manual handling aids.

The model incorporates the component e1 in the fully automatic, and the semi-automatic build BHS solutions only, where the component e1 is used for the proportion of non fully automated build, and non semi-automated build output technology. The model was programmed to incorporate any proportion of lateral build plus any proportion of fully automated build or semi-automated build. This input is set within the assembly environment worksheet (see Appendix D).

The results contained within this thesis have been calculated using a 75% proportion of lateral build (component e1) with a 25% proportion of either fully automated robotic build cell (component g1), or a semi-automated RTT build cell (component g2).

The quantity of component e1 used is defined by the equation:

$$Ne1 = \frac{D \times 75\%}{Pe1} \quad \dots 7$$

Where:

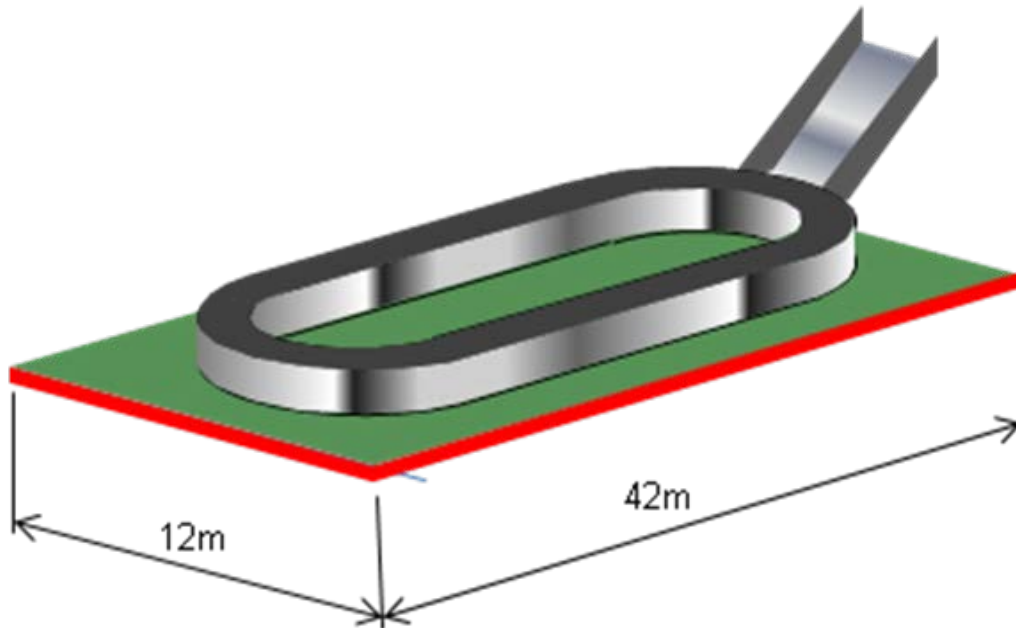
Ne1 = The number of e1 components present

D = Demand = Bags/Min.

Pe1 = Processing rate of the component e1 = 10 Bags/Min.

3.3.9 Component e3 flight racetracks (1x40m length unit)

Figure 16: Component e3 Flight Racetracks (1x40m length unit)



Function: The flight racetrack as denoted in Figure 16, stores ATL baggage by flight number, and in some instances by flight passenger class segregation. BHS loader staff then manually load the bags whilst they rotate on the racetrack and place into the ULD containers. Where it is envisaged that excessively heavy baggage will be transferred from the BHS racetrack to waiting ULDs, IATA (2004) recommend the provision of heavy baggage lifting equipment at the correct locations so that the risk of off loading injuries on staff is minimised. From a CAPEX and OPEX perspective, the component e3 excludes the provision of such manual handling aids.

The quantity of component e3 used is defined by the equation:

$$Ne3 = \frac{D \times 100\%}{Pe3} \quad \dots 8$$

Where:

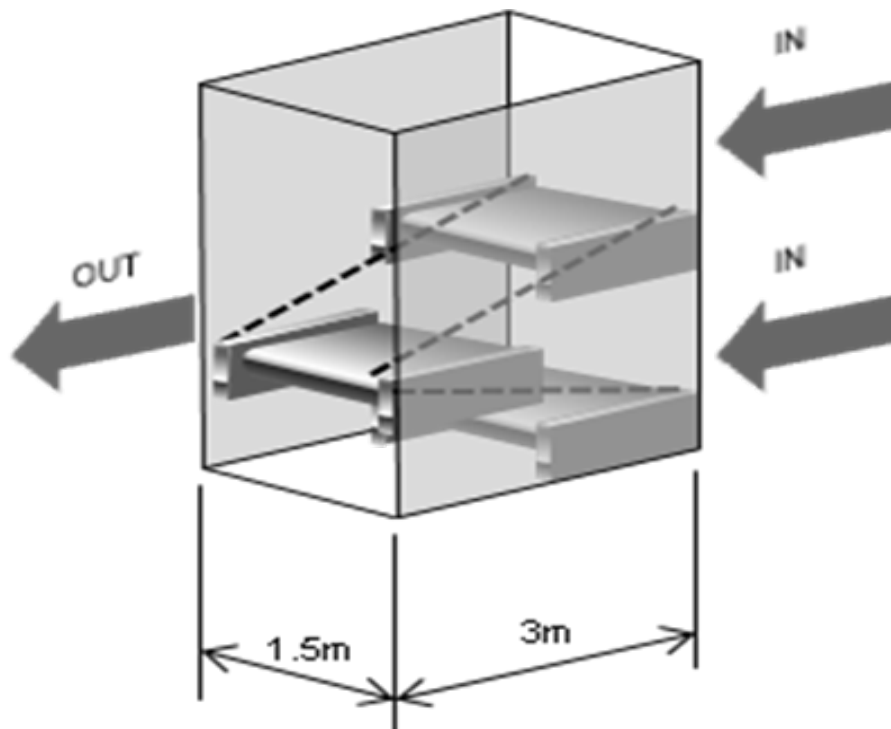
Ne3 = The number of e3 components present

D = Demand = Bags/Min

Pe3 = Processing rate of the component e3 = 10 Bags/Min.

3.3.10 Component e7 merge VSU

Figure 17: Component e7 merge VSU



Function: The verti-sortation unit (VSU) merge device is used to combine baggage flows. Baggage can be dynamically merged such that 2 bags travelling in succession on separate delivery lines can have the same output destination.

The number of component e7 (Ne7) used is defined by the rule that:

$$Ne7 =$$

IF #⁴⁰ delivery line (b1 component) is less than 2 then, # of Merge VSU (e7 components) = 0

Else the # of Merge VSU (e7 components) = # Delivery lines (component b1) - 1

Plus add..

⁴⁰ # Denotes quantity of or number of

IF # of Standard 2 Level 1 Units (component d1) is less than 2 then, # of e7 components = 0

Else the # of Merge VSU (e7 components) = # of Standard 2 Level 1 Units (component d1) – 1

Plus add..

IF # of Robotic Build Cell Units (component g1) is less than 2 then, # of e7 components = 0

Else the # of Merge VSU (e7 components) = # of Robotic Build Cell Units (component g1) – 1

Plus add..

IF # of RTT Build Cell Units (component g2) is less than 2 then, # of e7 components = 0

Else the # of Divert VSU (e7 components) = # of RTT Build Cell Units (component g2) – 1

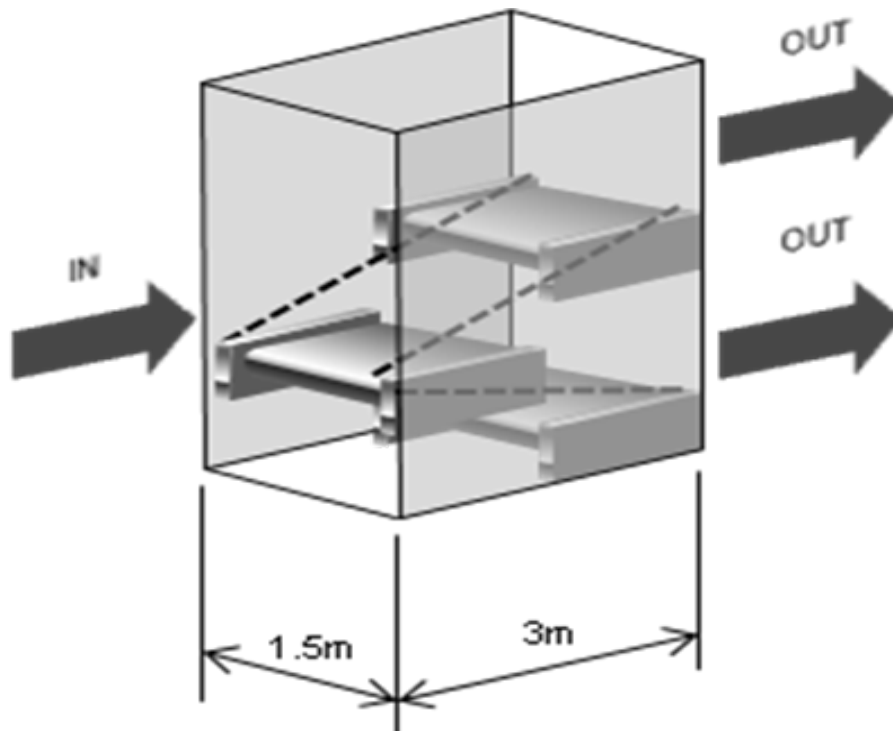
Plus add..

IF # of Flight Racetrack Units (component e3) is less than 2 then, # of e7 components = 0

Else the # of Divert VSU (e7 components) = # Flight Racetrack Units (component e3) – 1

3.3.11 Component e9 divert VSU

Figure 18: Component e9 divert VSU



Function: The vertical sortation unit (VSU) divert device is used to separate baggage flows. Baggage can be dynamically separated such that 2 bags travelling in succession on the same delivery line can be output to two separate output destinations.

The number of component e9 (Ne9) used is defined by the rule that:

$Ne9 =$

IF # delivery line (b1 component) is less than 2 then, # of Divert VSU (e9 components) = 0

Else the # of Divert VSU (e9 components) = #Delivery lines (component b1) - 1

Plus add..

IF # of Standard 2 Level 1 Units (component d1) is less than 2 then, # of e7 components = 0

*Else the # of Divert VSU (e9 components) = # of Standard 2 Level 1 Units
(component d1) – 1*

Plus add..

*IF # of Robotic Build Cell Units (component g1) is less than 2 then, # of e7
components = 0*

*Else the # of Divert VSU (e7 components) = # of Robotic Build Cell Units
(component g1) – 1*

Plus add..

*IF # of RTT Build Cell Units (component g2) is less than 2 then, # of e7
components = 0*

*Else the # of Divert VSU (e7 components) = # of RTT Build Cell Units
(component g2) – 1*

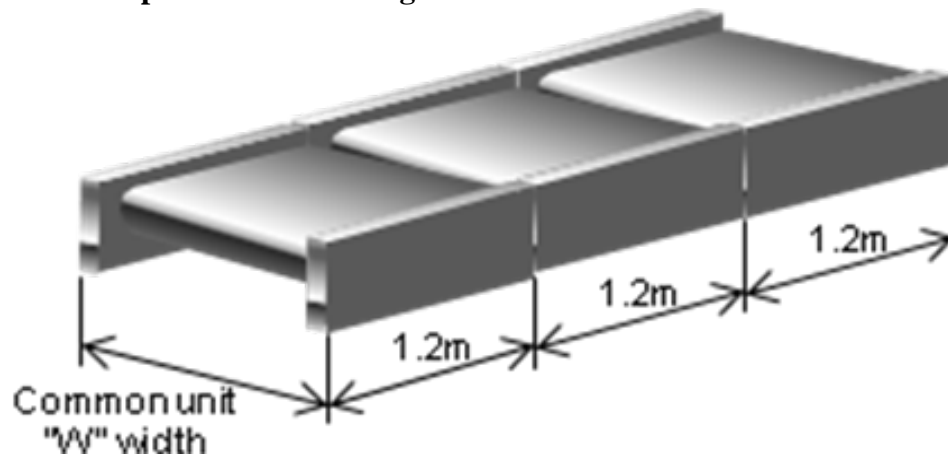
Plus add..

*IF # of Flight Racetrack Units (component e3) is less than 2 then, # of e7
components = 0*

*Else the # of Divert VSU (e7 components) = # Flight Racetrack Units
(component e3) – 1*

3.3.12 Component e10 indexing

Figure 19: Component e10 indexing



Function: The component e10, indexing or queuing conveyors, are used to flatten out peak surges in bag flows within the BHS. They do this by momentarily holding back bags within a peak flow. This creates greater time gaps in flows of bag. Indexing or queuing conveyors can also be used to synchronize the flows of baggage entering HBS equipment; this ensures the efficient use of this expensive screening equipment. The component e10 conveyor can be used in many locations, and the quantity of these conveyors in a system can easily become a major contributor to the total capital, and the ongoing operating cost of the BHS. IATA (2004) denote the following locations for the use of the component e10 indexing/queuing conveyors:

- Prior to line merges or junctions;
- Prior to and during Hold Baggage Screening (HBS);
- Prior to line divert verti-sorters, ploughs, pushers;
- Prior to sorter injection points;
- Prior to flight make-up lateral components.

The quantity of component e10 used is defined by the equations:

Then for a fully automatic BHS,

$$Ne10 = 5 \times [Component\ b1 + Component\ d1 + Component\ g1] \quad \dots 9$$

Where

Ne10 = Number of e10 units present

Component b1 is a Collector Belt unit

Component d1 is a Standard 2 Level 1 X-ray Unit

Component g1 is a Robotic build cell

For a semi-automatic BHS,

$$Ne10 = 5 \times [Component\ b1 + Component\ d1 + Component\ g2] \quad \dots 10$$

Where

Component b1 is a Collector Belt unit

Component d1 is a Standard 2 Level 1 X-ray Unit

Component g2 is a Manipulator (RTT type unit)

For a manual BHS,

$$Ne10 = 5 \times [Component\ b1 + Component\ d1 + Component\ e3] \quad \dots 11$$

Where

Component b1 is a Collector Belt unit

Component d1 is a Standard 2 Level 1 X-ray Unit

Component e3 is a Flight Racetracks (1x40m length unit)

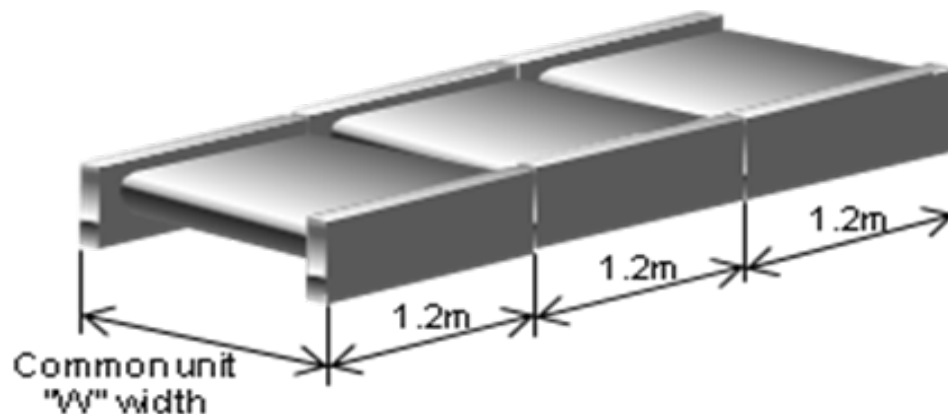
A multiplier of 5 has been used in each situation, as this is representative of the quantity of indexing, or queuing conveyors that are typically present within a baggage system, and indeed is the recommended practice (see IATA, 2004, Airport Development Reference Manual, Section U2.5.1). IATA note seven uses of the queuing conveyor, which include: (i) as a sorter injection conveyor (component e11) and (ii) as a flight make-up lateral conveyor (component e1).

Since both of the conveyors e1, and e11 are listed separately as components herein, the multiplier five has been used (e.g. 7-2=5 indexing conveyor uses per line).

It is possible that following dynamic simulation of the BHS, that the quantity of indexing / queuing conveyors could be reduced, or in some instances may need to be increased if the flow of baggage is particularly spiky.

3.3.13 Component e11 sortation induction

Figure 20: Component e11 sortation induction



Function: The Component e11 Sortation Induction unit is located at the interface between the conveyor belt BHS components, and the tilt tray sorter BHS components. The tilt tray sorter loop is a mechanism that has discrete trays with gaps between trays. It is necessary to inject the bags precisely at the correct time so that bags from the conveyor based system (component e11) do not fall between the gaps in the trays (component e12). The component e11 synchronizes the technology transfer between the belt system and the sorter system. It does this by starting and stopping the bag flows on component e11 rapidly to generate appropriate gaps between bags that are then injected onto the sorter component e12.

The induction process is designed to permit maximum throughput onto the sorter component with minimal baggage jams.

IATA (2004) note that there are three types of tilt tray sorter induction: (i) Side 30 degree; (ii) Side 45 Degree; and (iii) Overhead. The model has been designed with the overhead induction system. This system is becoming more and more commonplace.

The quantity of component e11 used is defined by the equation:

$$Ne11 = \frac{D}{Pe11} \quad \dots 12$$

Where:

Ne11 = The number of e11 components present.

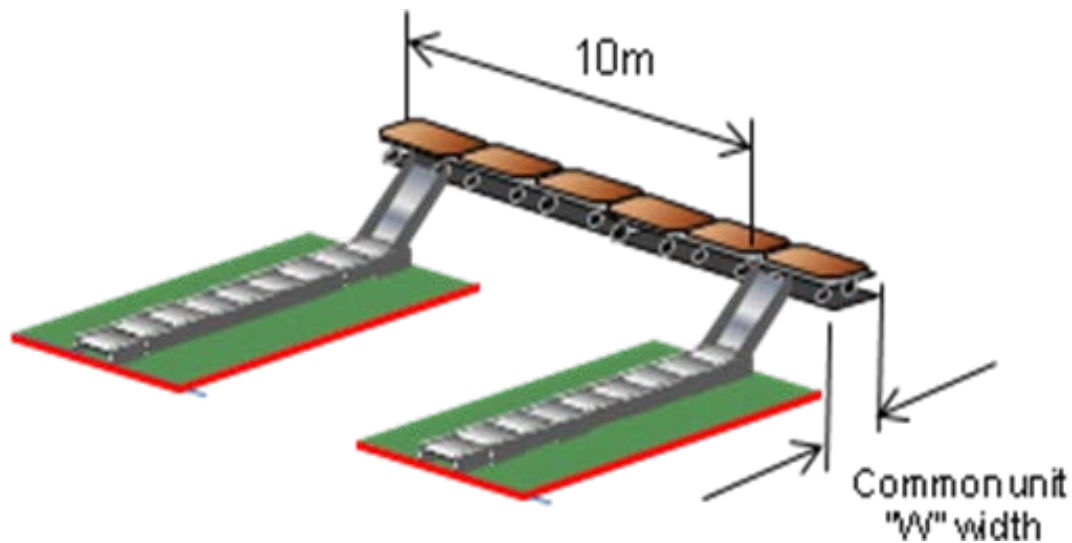
D = Demand = Bags/Min.

Pe11 = Processing rate of the component e11 = 60 Bags/Min.

The component e11 is only used where there is a sorter loop, component e12 present, this means that component e11 is present and used within fully automatic, and semi-automatic BHS only. Manual BHS do not include the sorter loop component e12.

3.3.14 Component e12 sortation loop

Figure 21: Component e12 sortation loop



Function: The sortation loop component e12 has one primary function, to route bags that have originated from either: (i) check-in, and the HBS processes, or (ii) the early bag store, as outlined in Figure 68, Figure 71, Figure 74, using the tilt tray sorter mechanism, to the correct output laterals (component e1). The tilt tray sorter mechanism comprises of wooden trays that enclose the hold baggage being transported. The wooden trays are attached to steel and aluminum wheeled carriages. These carriages run on track assemblies. The carriages are linked together to form a constant chain of carriages, and each one is encoded with a unique radio frequency or bar code identifying tag. As a passengers bag is inducted, and injected onto a tilt tray sortation loop assembly, the IATA bar code license plate number which relates to the passenger is matched up to the carriage identification tag on the tilt tray sortation loop. The BHS controls are able to track the carriages identification and tip off the passenger's baggage that relates to the flight code and destination lateral (components e1).

The quantity of component e12 used is defined by the equation:

$$Ne12 = 2 \times [(Ne1) + (Ng1)] \quad \dots 13$$

Where:

The multiplier 2 has been used since the sorter has, 1 off length associated within the presence of the lateral / chute components; though this is only half the total length of the sorter as it is a loop length. Hence the multiplier “2” has been used.

Ne12 = The number of e12 components present.

Ne1 = Number of component e1 (Flight Lateral (1x28m) present.

Ng1 = Number of component g1 Robotics (Grenzebach) present.

The component e12 is not used within manual sortation BHSs.

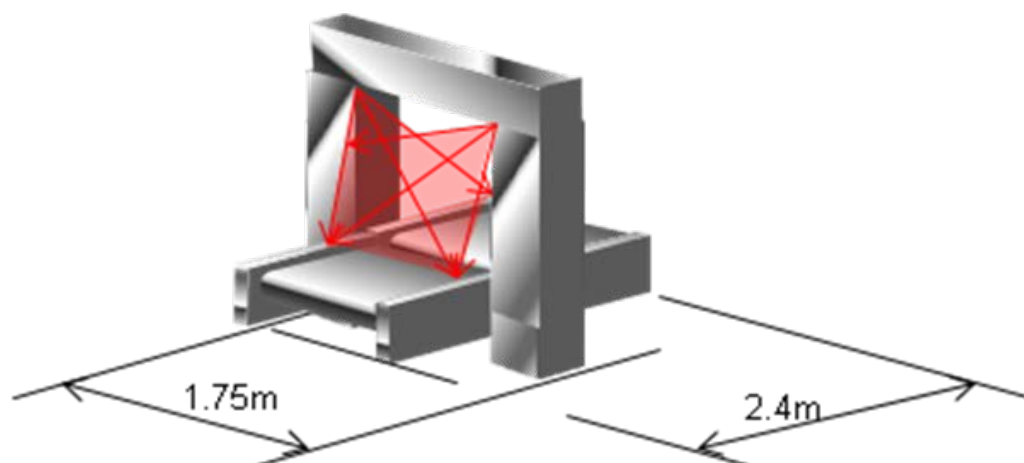
3.3.15 Component e21 power bus (1 off assembly) unit

Function: The power bus component e21 is a 3 phase power conduit and cabling system that delivers the power to all of the BHS components.

A quantity of one component e21 is required for each BHS solution.

3.3.16 Component e22 scanner array (1 unit)

Figure 22 Component e22 scanner array (1 unit)



Function: The component e22 scanner array has one primary function, and that is to dynamically scan the labels of the hold baggage that progresses through the BHS, and to verify the flight number contained within the label. The scanner array then sends that information to the BHS control system where it then uses this information to track the baggage in real time to enable the BHS control system to route the baggage to subsequent correct routes. There are two types of scanner array, the bar code reader array and the radio frequency tag reader array. Both technologies are in operation at airports across the world, but the bar code reader technology is by far the more commonplace, albeit it is less effective and reliable than the alternative radio frequency option. The larger more common bar code reader scanner array unit, Figure 22, has been defined within the model.

Normally scanner arrays are located upstream of the Component e11 Sortation Induction which permits the sorter loop then to route the departing bags to the allocated flight lateral (Component e1), robotic cell (component g1) or RTT device (component g2).

The quantity of component e22 used is defined by the equation:

$$\text{The number of e22 components present} = \frac{D}{Pe22} \quad \dots 14$$

Where:

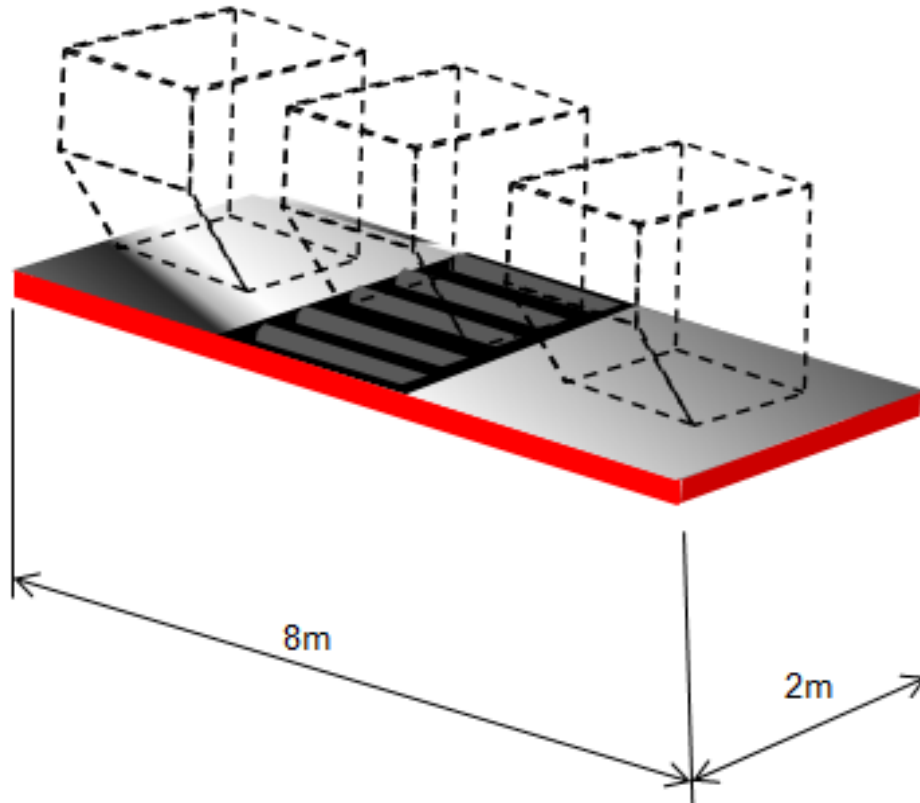
D = Demand = Bags/Min

Pe22 = Processing rate of the component e22 = 50 Bags/Min.

3.3.17 Component f2 ULD powered rollerbed

Figure 23: Component f2 ULD powered rollerbed

(2x2m rollerbed plus 1m walkway x 2 Plus 2m dock x 2)



Function: The component f2 is used to store, and move empty and full ULD equipment. There are two types of this equipment powered and unpowered. The model references the powered version of component f2. It should be noted that the volumetric definition of component f2 incorporates three ULDs simultaneously.

The quantity of component f2 used is defined by the equations:

Fully Automatic BHS: ... 15

$$Nf2 = \frac{[(13 \times Ng1) + (10 \times NSH) + (20 \times NLH)]}{3}$$

Where

Nf2 = The number of component f2 present.

Ng1 = The number of component g1 present

Ng2 = The number of component g2 present

NSH = The number of flights Short Haul/hour

NLH = The number of flights Long Haul/hour

And,

Where for every Robot Component g1 there is...

3 ULDs spaces and

5 Lead in spaces and

5 exit spaces

Total 13 ULD/Robot

Plus storage needed:

Code C 10ULDs/Flight

Code F 20ULDs/Flight

Semi-automatic BHS: ... 16

$$Nf2 = \frac{[(13 \times Ng2) + (10 \times NSH) + (20 \times NLH)]}{3}$$

Where

Where for every RTT Component g2 there is...

3 ULDs spaces and

5 Lead in spaces and

5 exit spaces

Total 13ULD/RTT

Plus storage needed:

Code C 10ULDs/Flight

Code F 20ULDs/Flight

$$Nf2 = \frac{[(10 \times NSH) + (20 \times NLH)]}{3}$$

Where

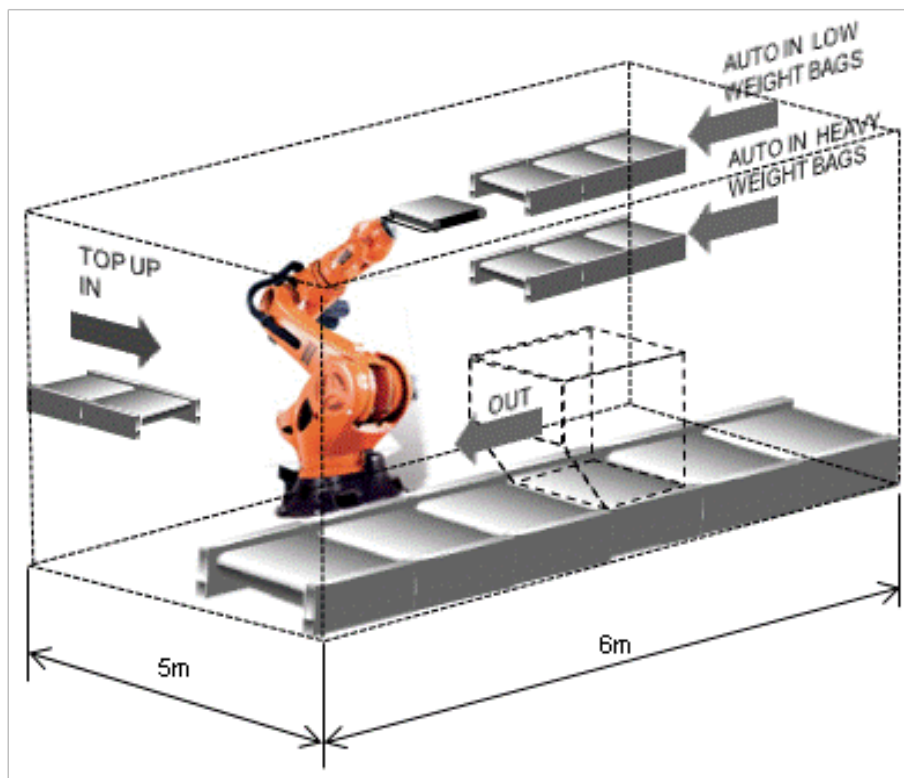
Where storage needed:

Code C 10ULDs/Flight

Code F 20ULDs/Flight

3.3.18 Component g1 robotic build cell

Figure 24: Component g1 robotic build cell



Function: The robotic build cell has one primary function, and that is to build departing bags into departing ULDs. It does this by receiving baggage from its inputs, and then: (i) determines what space remains within the ULD that is within the build cell environment, and (ii) to automatically, without human intervention, place bags correctly into the available spaces within the ULD. The first item is achieved using

laser scanners which measure, and with a build cell computer, evaluate the available space within a ULD, and then compute the most effective zone to place bags of varying sizes. The robotic build cell computer measures the size, and weight of every bag that enters to the build cell environment, and calculates to the optimum build / bag placements within the ULD. It also has an algorithm that ensures that the heavier bags are placed at the bottom of the ULDs to ensure ULD transportation stability.

The robotic build cell component g1 is present only in the fully automatic BHS solution.

The results contained within this thesis have been calculated using a 75% proportion of lateral build (component e1) with a 25% proportion of the fully automated robotic build cell (component g1).

The quantity of component g1 used is defined by the equation:

$$Ng1 = \frac{D \times 25\%}{Pg1} \quad \dots 18$$

Where:

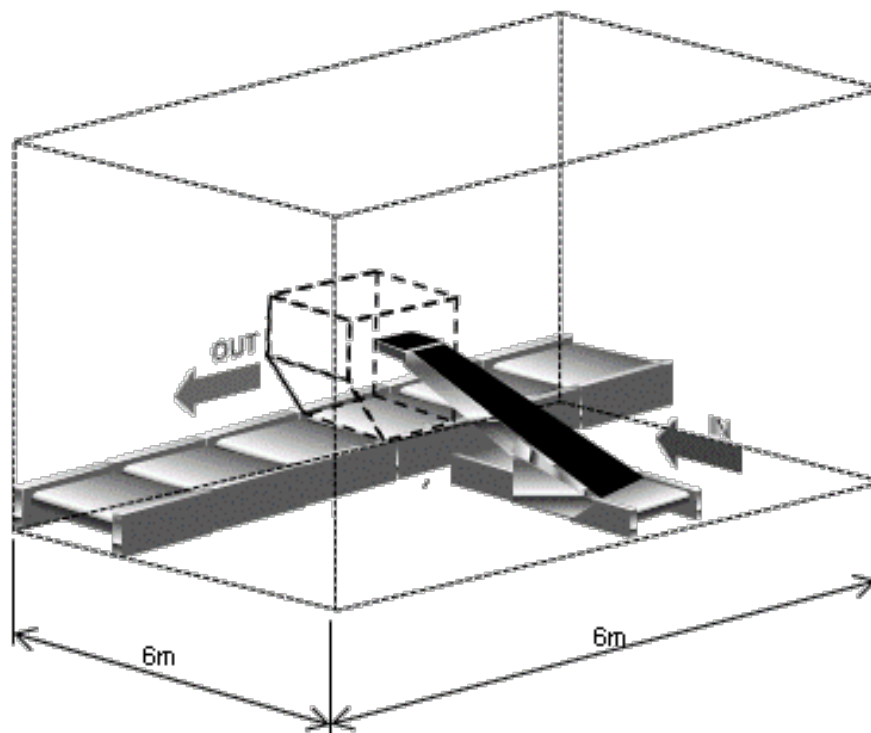
Ng1 = The number of g1 components present.

D = Demand = Bags/Min.

Pg1 = Processing rate of the component g1 = 4 Bags/Min.

3.3.19 Component g2 RTT (Teleair) semi-automated build cell

Figure 25: Component g2 RTT (Teleair) semi-automated build cell



Function: The RTT build cell has one primary function, and that is to build departing bags into departing ULDs. It does this by receiving baggage from its input conveyor, and then an operator controls the RTT system themselves which points, directs, and extends the RTT loading conveyor. There is no computer algorithm that will calculate the optimum build into a ULD, instead the RTT operator must manually determine the optimum placement of the bags into the ULD. It should be noted that whilst the processing rate of the RTT is 6 bags / minute / unit which is greater than that of the robotic build cell component g1 which is 4 bags / minute / unit, there remains the question with the RTT component with regards to its ability to consistently perform at this higher rate. The RTT rate is governed by the capacity of the RTT manual operator, and arguably the continued enthusiasm of the manual operator to work at this high rate for prolonged periods. The robotic build cell will not take tea and

comfort breaks that an operator will typically take. The RTT operator work rate will decline as the operator becomes naturally tired towards the end of a shift.

The RTT build cell component g2 is present only in the semi-automatic BHS solution. The results contained within this thesis have been calculated using a 75% proportion of lateral build (component e1) with a 25% proportion of the semi-automated RTT build cell (component g2).

The quantity of component g2 used is defined by the equation:

$$Ng2 = \frac{D \times 25\%}{Pg2} \quad \dots 19$$

Where:

Ng2 = The number of g2 components present.

D = Demand = Bags/Min.

Pg2 = Processing rate of the component g2 = 6 Bags/Min.

3.3.20 Component h1 power conditioner

Function: The power condition component h1 is required to maintain a constant (within a prescribed tolerance: power and frequency) power supply to the BHS equipment, removing any power spikes that might be occur from the power incomer (component h2) that originate from a local transformer connected to the national grid.

A quantity of one component h1 is required for each BHS solution.

3.3.21 Component h2 power incomer (1 off per drive)

Function: The power incomer component h2 connects the local power transformer from the national grid to the power conditioner component h1. A quantity of one component h2 is required for each BHS solution.

3.3.22 Component h3 motor controllers (1 off)

Function: The motor controller Component h3 distributes the 3 phase power from the power conditioner, component h1, to each of the BHS motor drives located within the baggage hall. A quantity of one component h3 is required for each BHS solution.

3.3.23 Component h4 programmable controller computer

Function: The Programmable Controller Computer, otherwise known as the overview level PLC computer, manages the multiple detailed level motor Programmable Controller Module components h5. The primary function of the component h4 is to know where every bag is, in real time, within the BHS, and to control the flow of baggage, by giving instructions to the multiple components h5, to stop or start each conveyor within BHS. A quantity of one component h4 is required for each BHS solution.

3.3.24 Component h5 programmable controller module

Function: The Programmable Controller Module component h5, otherwise known as detailed level programmable logic controllers reside on each conveyor unit within the BHS; the component h5 receives start stop commands from the overview level PLC component h4, and data from adjoining detailed level programmable controller

modules. With this information, and information that it too sends, it directly controls the stop start function of the conveyor that it occupies.

A quantity of one component h5 is required for each BHS conveyor drive present within the BHS. The total quantity of drives present is calculated by the model.

3.3.25 Component h6 programmable controller software

Function: To enable the components h4, h5, and h6 to operate, they require programmed software code. The component h6 is that software code. A quantity of one component h6 is required for each BHS solution.

3.3.26 Component h7 sort allocation computer

Function: The sort allocation computer (SAC), component h7 is the computer system that allows the baggage handlers, and the airlines to allocate airline flight numbers and flight class segregations to output build components such as the laterals (component e1), racetracks (component e4), robots (component g1), and RTT devices (component g2). The SAC interfaces with the Programmable Controller Computer, Component h4 to ensure that bags are sent to the correct output flight. A quantity of one component h7 is required for each BHS solution.

3.3.27 Component h8 control system computer and display

Function: The component h8 computer, and display is required to process the graphical outputs that the BHS operators and the airlines and handlers shall view and utilize. A nominal quantity of 10 component h7s are required for each BHS solution.

3.3.28 Component h9 safety equipment (per drive)

Function: Each conveyor needs to be fitted with safety equipment that will stop the conveyor in the event of an emergency (e.g. hand entrapment). The component h9 is fitted to each conveyor within the BHS and usually contains power isolation switches and circuit breakers and safety circuit cabling.

A quantity of one component h9 is required for each BHS conveyor drive present within the BHS. The total quantity of drives present is calculated by the model.

3.3.29 Component h10 network (per installation)

Function: The component h10 is the backbone network which enables all of the computer and programmable logic controller devices to communicate system control and operation data upon. A quantity of one component h10 is required for each BHS solution.

3.3.30 Component h11 SCADA system (base hardware / software)

Function: The SCADA component h11 is a computer, and bespoke software system which enables the BHS computer controls to (i) provide a user interface to the BHS operators, and (ii) to interface with the building management systems (particularly the fire systems management and resultant BHS route control). A quantity of one component h11 is required for each BHS solution.

3.3.31 Component i1 handling agent manual loader (lateral/racetrack/chute)

Function: The handling agent component / resource i1 removes the departing baggage from either: (i) the flight laterals (component e1), or (ii) the racetracks (component

e3), and loads (builds) the bags into the adjacent awaiting ULDS. The handling agent is also used at the base of the Chute devices (IATA 2004), though these units have not been referenced within the model as these devices are gradually being phased out of operations due to negative manual handling issues (hand entrapment and impact injuries to handling agents).

The quantity of component i1 used varies according to whether the system is a fully automatic, semi-automatic or manual BHS. The results contained within this thesis have been calculated using a 75% proportion of lateral build (component e1) with a 25% proportion of the fully automated Robotic build cell (component g1).

The results contained within this thesis have been calculated using a 75% proportion of lateral build (component e1) with a 25% proportion of the semi-automated RTT build cell (component g2).

For fully and semi-automated build BHSs the quantity of component / resource i1 used in each BHS option is defined by the equation:

$$Ni1 = \frac{D \times 75\%}{Pi1} \quad \dots 20$$

For manual build BHSs the quantity of component / resource i1 used in each BHS option is defined by the equation:

$$Ni1 = \frac{D \times 100\%}{Pi1} \quad \dots 21$$

Where:

N_{i1} = The number of $i1$ components present.

D = Demand = Bags/Min.

P_{i1} = Processing rate of the component $i1$, the manual handling baggage build rate of single manual handling agent operative is 2 bags/minute/operator.

3.3.32 Component $i2$ manual loader (robotics support & top up)

Function: There are occasions when the robotic build cells require an operator to intervene within the normal flight build sequence. The operator is normally needed to carry out two activities: (i) when a bag has behaved in an unpredicted manner (fallen off of the robotic actuator arm) which the robotic build cells logic algorithm, and mechanics cannot resolve, or (ii) the last few bags within a full ULD need to be loaded into the ULD manually by an operator. The component $i2$ is only used when a robotic build cell(s) is referenced within the model BHS solution.

The results contained within this thesis have been calculated using a 75% proportion of lateral build (component $e1$) with a 25% proportion of the fully automated Robotic build cell (component $g1$).

The quantity of component $i2$ used is defined by the equation:

$$N_{i2} \text{ (robotic)} = N_{g1} \times 50\% \quad \dots 22$$

Where:

$N_{i1} \text{ (robotic)}$ = The number of $i2$ staff components present supervising the robots.

50% factor relates to the issue that every two robotic build cells (component $g1$) require one operator component $i2$.

3.3.33 Component i3 manual loader (RTT)

Function: The manual loader (RTT) component / resource i3 operates, and controls the RTT component g2. For every RTT component g2 there is a corresponding manual loader (RTT) resource needed.

The results contained within this thesis have been calculated using a 75% proportion of lateral build (component e1) with a 25% proportion of the semi-automated RTT build cell (component g2).

The quantity of RTT staff component i3 used is defined by the equation:

$$Ni3(RTT) = Ng2 \quad \dots 23$$

Where

Ni3(RTT) = The number of component i3 manual loaders present.

Ng2 = The number of component g2 present.

3.3.34 Component j1: steelwork platform

Function: The steelwork platform is designed to hold and support specific BHS equipment, and permit this equipment to have maintenance access.

The quantity of component j1 used is defined by the equation: ... 24

$$\begin{aligned} Nj1 = & [Na1 \times 1.2] + [Nb1 \times 20] + [Nb4 \times 2.5] + [Nc1 \times 1.2] + [Nd1 \times 5] \\ & + [Nd2 \times 8] + [Ne1 \times 30] + [Ne7 \times 2.5] + [Ne9 \times 2.5] + [Ne10 \times 1.2] \\ & + [Ne11 \times 1.2] + [Ne12 \times 1] + [Nf2 \times 8] + [Ng1 \times 6] \end{aligned}$$

Where

Nj1 = The area of component j1 present.

Na1 = Number of Component a1 Check-in present.

Nb1 = Number of Component b1 Collector Belt present.

Nb4 = Number of Component b4 Powered Belt Curve present.

Nc1 = Number of Component c1 Conveyor Lane Q conveyors present.

Nd1 = Number of Component d1 Standard 2 Level 1 Unit present.

Nd2 = Number of Component d2 Standard 2 Level 3 Unit present.

Ne1 = Number of Component e1 Flight Lateral present.

Ne7 = Number of Component e7 Flight Lateral present.

Ne9 = Number of Component e9 Divert VSU present.

Ne10 = Number of Component e10 Indexing present.

Ne11 = Number of Component e11 Sortation induct present.

Ne12 = Number of Component e12 Sortation loop present.

Nf2 = Number of Component f2 ULD Powered Rollerbed present.

Ng1 = Number of Component g1 Robotics (Grenzebach) present.

3.3.35 Component j3 stairs

Function: Most BHSs are designed on two or more levels, with the upper level(s) of the BHSs usually being supported by steel mezzanine(s). It is for this reason that an allowance has been made for the provision of steelwork stairs that will be needed to access the BHS equipment on the multiple levels.

The quantity of component j3 used is defined by the equation: ... 25

$$Nj3 = \frac{\sum drives}{30}$$

where

Nj3 = The number of j3 stair components present.

$\sum drives$ = Total number of powered conveyor drives present within the BHS.

3.3.36 Component k1 fire door

Function: The fire door component k1 has two functions, to provide fire rated seal, and to provide a security seal between the airports landside environment, and the airports airside environment. The fire door component is fitted on each delivery line component b1 that is present within the BHS.

The quantity of component k1 used is defined by the equation: ... 26

$$Nk1 = Nb1$$

where

Nk1 = The number of k1 Fire Doors present.

Nb1 = The number of delivery lines component b1 present.

3.4 Chapter summary

This Chapter explained the questions that were raised to aid the development of the model. The answers to these questions, that are given, have permitted the electro mechanical components referenced within the model to be defined. The process maps, the logic that are defined within the three types of BHS types that can be built within the model is explained. The following Chapter 4 outlines the method and operating philosophies that the pull and the push BHSs need to adopt. Chapter 4 also analyses the ULD availability and storage requirements which must be accurately predicted to enable a cost effective BHS to be specified. This ULD storage analysis has been incorporated into the equation that defines the quantity ULDs (see section 3.3.17 component f2) that a BHS must provide to enable it to function correctly.

4. MODEL DEVELOPMENT

4.1 Overview

This section provides an explanation of the operating philosophies that distinguish the three baggage handling operating build models. The actual baggage demand profile characteristics witnessed within a baggage system are explained that are referenced within the model. The equation 27 is defined which has been used to predict the flow of baggage within a theoretical baggage system environment of the model, for any proposed baggage demand scenario. This baggage input profile per flight can also permit the size of the Early Bag Store to be determined, as the number of bags that need to be stored before the flight(s) has actually opened can be calculated.

4.2 BHS operating philosophies

There are three operating baggage build philosophies which are known to be capable of processing passenger hold baggage through BHSs, these are:

- (i)** Historic conventional “manual” build;

Summarized characteristics:

Flight lateral / chute opens STD⁴¹ - 180 minutes for long haul, and STD - 45 minutes to STD - 90 minutes for short haul. Bags are loaded into ULDs or baggage carts by staff manually.

- (ii)** Compressed conventional build

Summarized characteristics:

⁴¹ STD abbreviation, Standard Time of Departure: point in time when aircraft departs the stand.

Flight lateral / chute opens at STD - 90 minutes for long haul. Effective ULD coordination is required. Bags are loaded into ULDs or baggage carts by staff manually.

(iii) Fully or semi-automated build

Summarized characteristics:

Build cell concept used: cell opens before STD - 90 minutes, e.g. STD – 90 minutes to STD – 300 minutes. Bags are loaded into ULDs or baggage carts by machines efficiently, e.g. robotics or man machine interface device used. Effective ULD coordination is also required.

Operating philosophy (ii) has not been used to process actual passenger baggage. Successful trials of this method were completed in March 2011, within a major UK airport BHS, using “test baggage”⁴². The trial proved that this method is practical, and highly efficient when in use.

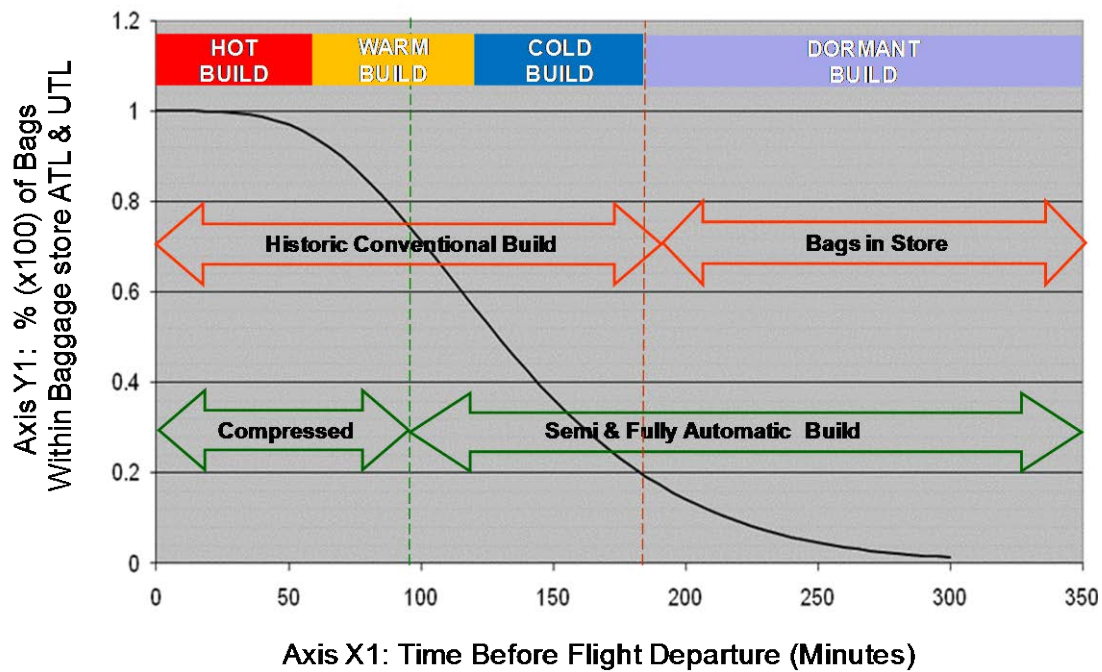
The historic conventional build philosophy is as the names suggests the de facto process adopted by most of the world airports processing baggage within category A, B, and C BHSs, as recommended by IATA, (2004).

The automated build philosophy, using robotic build, has been in live trial operation at Amsterdam airport, since 2002. Subsequently, six robotic automatic build cells have been operation since March 2011, as noted by Samola (2008).

These operating philosophies dictate the BHS components selected to process the hold baggage, and have been embedded into the model BHS assembly logic.

⁴² Test baggage: baggage which weighs and is dimensionally representative of typical passenger baggage but is not real passenger baggage.

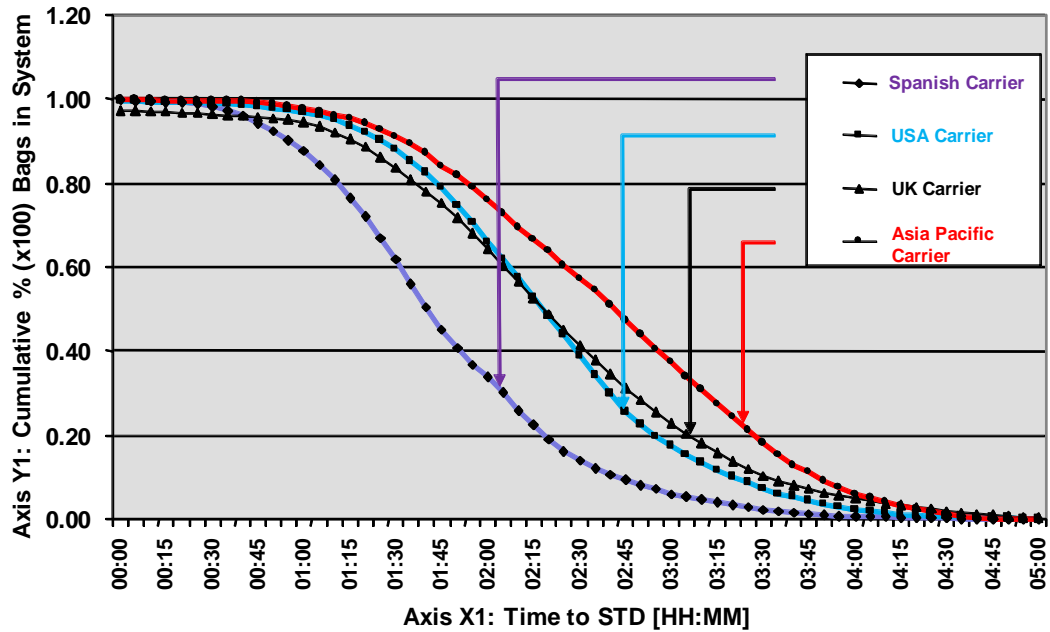
Figure 26: Bag store inventory and flight build types



4.3 Predicting baggage flow

Actual bag throughput data obtained during the research phase was used to develop the model Gamma equation (.. 27). Figure 27 shows the actual cumulative flow of baggage present within a baggage system for four typical flights plotted against the flights STD. Actual baggage profiles can be theoretically replicated (see Figure 26) using the Gamma distribution function. It is clear that actual data denoted in Figure 27 and that of the profile data calculated using the Gamma equation (see Figure 26) are very similar. It is for this reason that the Gamma function was referenced within the model.

Figure 27: Baggage input profile - actual airport bag flow data



The equation for the Gamma λ distribution (Source: Microsoft Excel Gamma

Function Explanation) is:

$$f(x; \alpha, \beta) = \frac{1}{\beta^\alpha \Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\frac{x}{\beta}}$$

... 27

where standard Gamma distribution series is:

$$\Gamma(\alpha) \quad \dots 28$$

The Gamma function variables⁴³, Alpha (α) is set at a value of 5.5, and Beta (β) is set at a value of 25 within the model. It should be noted that the Gamma function variables α , and β can be adjusted to best match any airports specific bag store profile characteristics.

⁴³ Gamma function variables Alpha (α) = 5.5 and Beta (β) = 25 were used as they best replicate the actual BHS flow data as witnessed in Figure 27.

where

X = The STD variable

(α) Alpha = 5.5 (airport/airline specific)

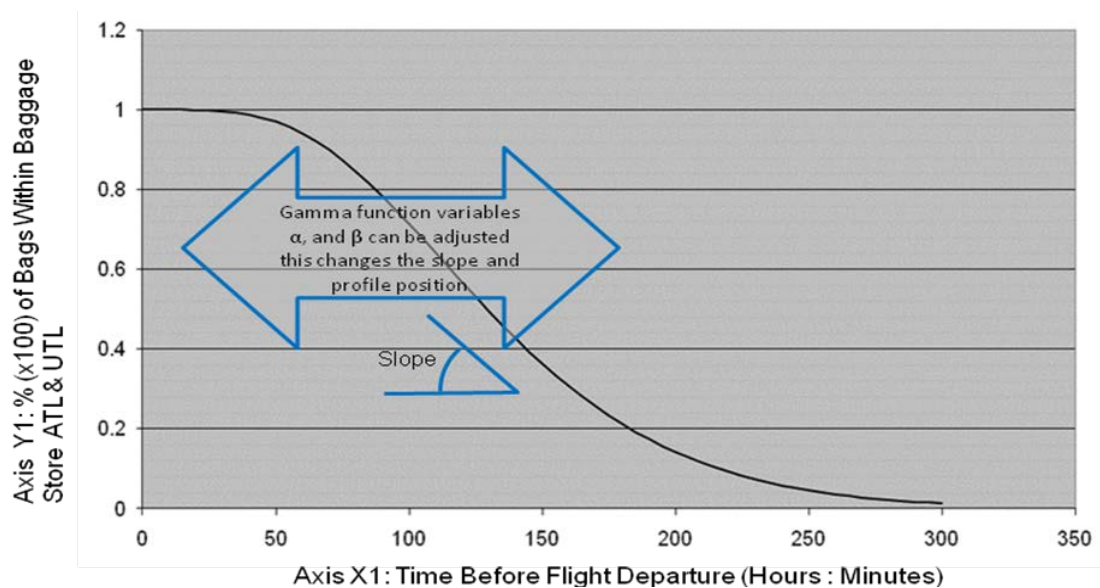
(β) Beta = 25 (airport/airline specific)

$f(X; \alpha, \beta)$ = Gamma distribution output at X

Gamma Resolution = 5 minute intervals

If one changes the variables α , and β individually, the gradient, and the position of the baggage profile can be adjusted relative to the STD position. Moving the Gamma profile toward STD would generally represent the profile witnessed at airports processing more peaky traffic.

Figure 28: Baggage input profile – theoretical Gamma function airport bag flow data



The model can generate the flow distribution of baggage present within a BHS for any quantity of flights per hour, and any type of flights (long and/or short haul), using the input variable worksheet dashboard (Appendix B). Each flight entered follows the Gamma profile, and this information is then referenced within the sample flight

schedule that is shown in Appendix F (peaking factor worksheet). The peaking factor worksheet calculates the 5 minute interval peaking factor that can be present with certain Gamma profiles. The α (5.5), and β (25) constant values set in the Gamma equation, do not produce a noticeable peaking factor. Different α , and β values could create a peaking factor in excessive of 100%; in this situation if a peak flow rate per flight did exist in any of the 5 minute intervals measured over a 1 hour period then the resultant peaking factor would be entered into the “Input Variables” worksheet dashboard (Appendix B), this in turn would increase the baggage flow rate demand placed on the BHS.

The model is not a dynamic model, that is the quantity of equipment or resources calculated to be required is directly determined by the static throughput rate of the pieces of equipment or resource that are pulled out of the equipment database, and assembled according to the process rules defined within Chapter 3. That stated, it can be seen from Appendix F, that with the selected bag departure profiles used per long haul, and per short haul flight, assembled into according flight schedules, that the resultant baggage flow rate, at any time interval, does not create a demand baggage flow rate, measured over an hour period, that will exceed 100%; therefore the peaking factor used within the model input has been set at 0% accordingly to show that no excessive peaks exist.

In practice all BHSs are very dynamic, and BHSs respond to not only hourly bag flows but minute by minute peak flows. The “peak” bag flow rate can create mini surges of bags through the BHS, these surges are absorbed in the queuing (indexing component e10) conveyors that have been specified within Chapter 3. It is therefore

also reasonable to maintain that the peaking factor used within the model is set at 0% additional bag flow rate, as any peak surges would be absorbed by the equipment specified.

4.4 ULD storage requirements

Operationally all BHSs require ULDs⁴⁴ to be stored locally at the airport. The quantity of ULDs that are operationally required to be stored is dependent upon: (i) how many airlines are present, and what ULD sharing is permitted; (ii) BHS throughput; (iii) arriving baggage/ULD input profile, and (iv) the quantity of ULDs that maybe required by the airline(s).

Chapter 3, section 3.3.17 provides the equation that defines how many ULD storage spaces are required for the three types of BHSs. The equations for the Fully Automatic BHSs (..15), the equation for the semi-automatic BHSs (...16), and the equation for the manual BHS (..17) all include two constants with the numerical value of 10 ULDs needed per short haul flight, and 20 ULDs needed per long haul flight. This section explains how those operational constants were determined.

Handling agents and self-handling airlines have difficulty in predicting the quantity of ULDs that must be stored at the airport in preparation for servicing the ULD needs of outbound flights.

⁴⁴ Unit load device (ULDs): These are aluminium containers of various fixed sizes, as defined by the International Air Transport Association (IATA, 2004) which can store passenger hold baggage within the baggage hall, the apron or on capable aircraft.

An equation that encompasses the integral of the regular Gamma function is proposed to calculate the percentage of bags that can be built into outbound ULDs by reusing ULDs that have arrived on the same inbound aircraft. By knowing the quantity of ULDs that can be built using ULDs from this source, one can then determine the remaining quantity of ULDs that need to be stored locally, and hence the size of the ULD stores (component f2) that are needed.

The criticality of the in-bound aircraft “brakes on time”⁴⁵ relative to the departure time of the outbound aircraft, which are stated as an input in the input variables dashboard (Appendix B), and the effect this has on: (i) the quantity of available ULDs that can be built, and; (ii) the quantity of ULDs that need to be stored on the airport complex is explained.

The quantity of bags that can be built, and moreover the quantity of ULDs that need to be stored are tabularised specifically for the Airbus 318, Airbus 320, Airbus 340, Airbus 380, Boeing 737, Boeing 757, Boeing 777, Boeing 747, and Boeing 787 aircraft. The results are shown for varied “brakes on time” of the inbound aircraft using a common standard time of departure (STD) timescale set by the outbound aircraft that is serviced.

There is no previously published method that will calculate the percentage of bags that can be built into ULDs or baggage carts, when it is understood that an inbound aircraft provides the ULDs for a subsequent outbound flight departure, and where baggage carts are readily available. There is a method documented by IATA (2008)

⁴⁵ Brakes on Time: This is the point in time when an arriving aircraft has taxied onto the aircraft stand, then stopped, and the brakes of the aircraft have been applied.

that will calculate the necessary positioning of ULDs across an operational flight network. The method proposed herein defines the quantity of ULDs that should be pre-stored at the airport by airlines, and handling agents by predicting the demand of ULDs. This demand is governed by the real time position of the baggage that is to be built into the ULDs.

The flow of baggage into a baggage system is not physically linked to the availability of ULDs or baggage carts on the airport. They are however constrained by a common real time element though; the inbound and outbound flight schedule. It is critical to understand the baggage profile within a baggage system, and to be capable of modelling this relative to this schedule or to a common time line. The analysis that follows uses a common time line which allows the baggage of an outbound flight, within the baggage system, to be assessed relative to the position of the inbound flight ULDs.

4.4.1 Factors that affect build

There are two factors that determine when it is possible to build the baggage for containerised flights and non-containerised flights. These are: (a) the availability of ULDs for predominantly code D (E.G. Boeing 757), code E (E.G. Boeing 747), and code F (E.G. Airbus 380) aircraft, and the availability of baggage carts for loose loaded baggage with Code A, B, and C (E.G. Boeing 737) aircraft; and (b) the availability of ATL baggage within the baggage system that can be directed to ULDs or carts.

4.4.1.1 Availability of ULDs

Code A, B, and C aircraft generally do not carry baggage in any form of ULD. Instead baggage is transported loosely within the hold of the aircraft. The baggage from these aircraft are loaded, and unloaded from airport-based baggage carts; the baggage carts are not loaded onto the aircraft and always reside at the originating airport. Code D, E, and F aircraft carry baggage in the hold of aircraft within ULD containers.

ULDs are usually located at:

- (i) the hold of the aircraft;
- (ii) head of stand ULD temporary holding areas;
- (iii) the baggage hall with baggage being loaded;
- (iv) the baggage hall with baggage being unloaded; and
- (v) airport based ULD stores.

4.4.1.2 Quantity of ATL bags

The availability of ATL baggage which can be loaded into ULDs is dependent on the flow of baggage from check-in, and the flow of transfer baggage from interconnecting transfer flights which the airlines have allocated the ATL status. These flows often then merge in the baggage system giving a combined flow through hold baggage screening, early baggage storage and ultimately the flight sortation processes.

4.4.1.3 Confirm available ATL bags for build.

The total number of bags on the flight that are to be considered is calculated by multiplying the number of flights, by the number of passengers present on each flight, by the number hold bags presented by each passenger.

4.4.1.4 Availability of first ULD from inbound aircraft.

A ULD becomes available to be built for building departing baggage when the inbound flight ULDs are removed from the aircraft, the baggage contents are emptied, and the ULD is repositioned for flight departures build. It should be noted airlines do frequently however use local empty ULD racks which contain empty ULDs which be called upon during the flight open period. Hua-An Lu, Chien-Yi Chen (2011) propose a predicative model that describes the networked ULD movement behaviour experienced by a single airline; the model predicts the necessary quantities of ULDs that are needed to be positioned correctly in real time across the network airport locations. Depending on the type of airline, airport location, and ultimate demand, airlines will use inbound ULD, stored or buffered ULDs, and shared airline ULDs. Sharing of ULDs across multiple airline carriers does occur, but is less commonplace. For Code C loose load aircraft, baggage carts are used which can be built as soon as the ATL baggage is available, and the baggage cart has been positioned for a flight build.

4.5 Build availability equation

The equation ...29 describes the availability of all ATL bags, on all flights, built into either short haul baggage carts, or long haul baggage ULD equipment, when the ULDs become available from an inbound arriving flight.

A product formula is proposed comprising of three core components [A], [B], and [C];

$$Q_{bb} = [A] \times [B] \times [C]$$

... 29

Where:

- (i) Q_{bb} is the total quantity of all ATL bags built, from all flights, which are built into ULDs that have arrived on an inbound aircraft, within the specified integral period.
- (ii) The component [A] defines the delivery rate behaviour of the baggage entering the baggage system for any flight. Component [A] is integrated between the lower limit, and upper time limit interval. This time interval is the period that the inbound aircraft can make ULDs available for outbound aircraft build activities.

$$A = \left[\int_{LL}^{UL} (\lambda \cdot \vartheta) \right] \quad \dots 30$$

- (iii) The component [B] is a multiplying factor that defines the percentage of baggage within the baggage system for the outbound aircraft which is authorised to be built. This is referenced to as the ATL probability factor (K_{ATL}). The K_{ATL} value is a set value for long haul traffic and for short haul traffic operations, and has been derived from historic actual witnessed data defined in the research paper published by Bradley et al (2012).

$$B = [K_{ATL-LH}] \text{ or } [K_{ATL-SH}] \quad \dots 31$$

- (iv) The component [C] defines the number of baggage on the aircraft and references data contained in Table 3 that follows.

$$C = [Number\ of\ Bags\ on\ Flight] = [Number\ of\ Flights] \times \frac{Pax}{Flight} \times \frac{Bags}{Pax} \quad \dots 32$$

and where the integration limits are denoted by...

Lower Limit (LL) = STD first empty ULD or baggage cart arrives at the build area

Upper Limit (UL) = STD last empty ULD or baggage cart arrives at the build area

K_{ATL} (short haul) = 92%

K_{ATL} (long haul) = 70% - 90% (STD dependent)

The product of the components [A], [B], and [C] calculates the results shown in Table 4 that follows.

To use the ULD storage capacity method defined herein the following variables must be determined:

- (i) Defining if the aircraft to be considered: long haul or short haul flight;
- (ii) Confirming the integral time period between, brake on time of the inbound aircraft and the STD of the outbound aircraft;
- (iii) Confirming the number of passengers on the outbound aircraft;
- (iv) Confirming the bag to passenger ratio for passengers on the outbound aircraft.

The variables (i), (ii), (iii), and (iv) above are referenced within the model, and can be seen on the input variable worksheet, (Appendix B).

Authorised to load (ATL) bags are permitted to be built into a ULD or a baggage cart, and then placed into the hold of an outbound aircraft. Unauthorised to be loaded (UTL) baggage is not permitted to be loaded onto an aircraft. Each piece of hold baggage has a corresponding baggage source message (BSM) set of data which is attributed to each of the unique IATA baggage tags; the ATL/UTL baggage status is confirmed in the BSM whilst the bags are in transit within the system.

The UTL to ATL status transition is usually made when the airline is certain that: (a) the bag has cleared the hold baggage security screening processes, and (b) bag to passenger reconciliation has occurred. This is where a positive match has been confirmed, approximately at STD-30, that a passenger's bag(s), and the corresponding passenger have been reconciled in the flight manifest.

4.5.1 Tabulated results: percentage of bags built

The product of component [A] multiplied by [B] calculates the percentage of baggage on the specific aircraft considered, that can be built into available ULDs, reusing the inbound arriving aircraft ULDs, to provide the departing outbound aircraft with ULDs.

Table 3 lists the output of component $[A] \times [B]$ for each of the considered aircraft, where the variable “brakes on time” ranges from 30 minutes to 300 minutes for the inbound aircraft relative to a common STD timeline.

Table 3: Product [A] x [B] - Percentage of bags built, varying brakes on time before STD

<u>Aircraft Characteristics</u>					<u>Inbound aircraft brakes on time before STD (Mins)</u>									
<u>Aircraft</u>	<u>Series</u>	<u>Aircraft turn around time (Mins)</u>	<u>Time to unload aircraft belly (Mins)</u>	<u>Time to load aircraft belly (Mins)</u>	<u>30</u>	<u>60</u>	<u>90</u>	<u>120</u>	<u>150</u>	<u>180</u>	<u>210</u>	<u>240</u>	<u>270</u>	<u>300</u>
<u>% Of bags built using inbound aircraft ULDs</u>														
Boeing 737	800W	38	6	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Boeing 757	300	34	7	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Boeing 777	200-LR	45	18	18	0	1	7	23	43	60	73	81	85	88
Boeing 747	800	110	20	22	0	0	6	22	41	59	72	80	85	88
Boeing 787	800	44	16	16	0	1	8	24	44	61	74	81	86	88
Airbus A318	100	19	6	6	0	2	13	31	50	66	77	83	87	88
Airbus A320	200	23	6	6	0	2	13	31	50	66	77	83	87	88
Airbus A340	600	63	20	20	0	0	6	22	41	59	72	80	85	88
Airbus A380	800	90	37	27	0	0	2	12	30	49	65	76	83	86

The non-containerised aircraft (B737 and B757) shown in Table 3 are not reliant on the presence of ULDs to enable these aircraft to be loaded with departing baggage. It is for this reason that 0% is reported in Table 3 against these aircraft types.

4.5.2 Tabulated results: Number of bags built

Table 4 lists the output of equation ...29 fully, where components [A] x [B] x [C] are shown for each of the considered aircraft, and where the variable “brakes on time” ranges from 30 minutes to 300 minutes for the inbound aircraft relative to a common STD timeline.

Table 4: Product [A] x [B] x [C]: Number of bags built, varying brakes on time before STD

<u>Aircraft Characteristics</u>					<u>Inbound aircraft brakes on time before STD (Mins)</u>									
<u>Aircraft</u>	<u>Series</u>	Aircraft turn around time (Mins)	Time to unload aircraft belly (Mins)	Time to load aircraft belly (Mins)	30	60	90	120	150	180	210	240	270	300
<u>Product [A] x [B] x [C] # of bags built using inbound aircraft ULDs</u>														
Boeing 737	800W	38	6	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Boeing 757	300	34	7	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Boeing 777	200-LR	45	18	18	0	6	42	139	260	362	441	489	513	532
Boeing 747	800	110	20	22	0	0	43	158	294	423	516	574	609	631
Boeing 787	800	44	16	16	0	5	42	127	233	323	391	428	455	466
Airbus A318	100	19	6	6	0	4	25	59	95	125	146	157	164	166
Airbus A320	200	23	6	6	0	3	17	41	66	87	102	110	115	116
Airbus A340	600	63	20	20	0	0	20	75	139	201	245	272	289	299
Airbus A380	800	90	37	27	0	0	14	86	215	351	466	545	595	617

4.5.2.1 Code C aircraft ULD storage requirements

With reference to table 4 at STD 60 minutes, for the Airbus A318 (a typical code C aircraft), only 4 bags out of 166 bags can be built using the inbound aircraft available ULDs. It follows then, as seen in table 5, that the full quota of ULDs need to be provided to service this aircraft, and must be pre-stored at the airport.

4.5.2.2 Code F aircraft ULD storage requirements

Similarly, with reference to table 4 at STD -180 minutes for the Airbus A380 (code F aircraft) only 351 bags out of 617 bags can be built using the inbound aircraft

available ULDs. It follows then, as seen in table 5, that a partial quota of ~20 ULDs need to be provided to service this aircraft and must be pre-stored at the airport.

Table 5: Number of ULDs needed to be stored at the airport to service outbound aircraft, varying brakes on time before STD.

<u>Aircraft Characteristics</u>			<u>Inbound aircraft brakes on time before STD (Mins)</u>									
<u>Aircraft</u>	<u>Series</u>	(Total # of ULDs on aircraft)	<u>30</u>	<u>60</u>	<u>90</u>	<u>120</u>	<u>150</u>	<u>180</u>	<u>210</u>	<u>240</u>	<u>270</u>	<u>300</u>
<u>Number of ULDs needed to be stored at the airport to service outbound aircraft</u>												
Boeing 737	800W	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Boeing 757	300	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Boeing 777	200-LR	32	32	32	30	25	19	13	9	7	5	4
Boeing 747	800	38	38	38	36	30	23	16	11	8	6	5
Boeing 787	800	28	28	28	26	22	16	11	8	6	4	4
Airbus A318	100	10	10	10	9	7	5	4	3	2	2	2
Airbus A320	200	7	7	7	7	5	4	3	2	2	1	1
Airbus A340	600	18	18	18	17	15	11	8	6	4	3	3
Airbus A380	800	38	38	38	38	34	27	20	14	10	7	6

4.5.3 Tabulated results: Number of ULDs to be stored locally

Table 5 lists the quantity of ULDs needed to be stored locally for each of the considered aircraft, where the variable “brakes on time” ranges from 30 minutes to 300 minutes for the inbound aircraft relative to a common STD timeline.

The quantity of the Component f2, ULD Powered Rollerbed, used to store ULDs is defined by the equations, (15, 16, and 17). These equations use two constant values 10, and 20 that derived from Table 5. The value of 10 ULDs to be stored per typical

Code C (short haul containerised) Airbus A318 – 100 series aircraft, which parks and has a brakes on time at STD-60 minutes is used, and the value of 20 ULDs to be stored per typical Code F (long haul containerised) Airbus A380 – 800 series aircraft, which parks, and has a brakes on time at STD-180 minutes is used. This defines the total ULD storage needed to meet the operational requirements for any given code C and Code F flight input schedule.

4.6 Chapter summary

In summary Chapter 4 has explained how bags enter the BHS using the proposed Gamma equation, and how the model deals with this. This Gamma equation has also been used to define two constants used within the model, such that the quantity of ULDs that need to be stored per flight type processed can be calculated. It was necessary to fully understand this relationship, and these ULD constants since they have an impact upon the building solution size that are ultimately required, and calculated by the model.

5. CAPITAL OPERATING AND WHOLE LIFE CYCLE COSTS

5.1 Introduction to costs

The principle purpose of Chapter 5 is to explain what capital and operating costs were used within the model, and how these values were derived. Furthermore this Chapter explains the financial modeling technique that was selected. A series of questions were asked and are answered which support the financial modeling proposal.

Table 6 that follows provides a summary of the capital, and operating costs that have been referenced within the model. The capital costs of equipment are costs without the manufacturers profit margin applied. The capital, and the annual operating running costs of each component, plus the salary cost values of the staff that would be deployed, were obtained through interviews and meetings with Cowper (2010), Dolye (2010), Shortland (2010), Stewart (2010), Unwin (2009), and Wood (2010). This data is contained within Appendix G.

In Chapter 3 the electro mechanical components used within the three BHS types is constructed and defined. With the specification of the three types electro mechanical systems established it is then necessary to summarize their costs. To do this one must first ask some questions that will help determine how the costs shall be constructed, what tests should be carried out, and what financial evaluation technique should be used.

These questions were noted to be:

1. How can BHSs that do not actually exist yet be compared consistently?
2. What factors could affect a financial comparison of BHSs?
3. What financial assessment approach should be used to compare BHSs?

5.1.1 How can BHSs that do not actually exist yet be compared consistently?

Airport operators, BHS design consultants, and BHS suppliers are naturally normally reluctant to divulge commercial capital, and moreover operating cost information pertaining to the development of BHSs. This is because the information is commercially sensitive, and could be used to the detriment of these organisations. BHSs are designed to meet airport specific forecasted baggage input demands, and it is impossible to obtain capital cost, and operating cost data for the sets of experiments that are needed and explained in this Chapter. This information is both difficult to get hold of and arguably of little value when received as there are often inconsistencies with the data that is provided. For example, if two organisations are asked the same question, to provide capital costs of their airports BHS, it is highly probable that the data received will contain a different set of capital cost build up assumptions. For this reason it was necessary to construct the model which was then subjected to the different input demand requirements. The consistent electro mechanical construction approach, detailed in Chapter 3 produces directly comparable results.

Table 6: Model component capital production costs and operating costs per annum (quarter 4 2011 prices)

<u>Comp. ID</u>	<u>Sub System Technology</u>	<u>CAPEX £'s</u>	<u>OPEX £'s Per Annum</u>	<u>Area m²</u>
a1	Conventional Conveyor (3x1.2m assembly)	Ca1: £13,481	Oa1: £5,447	Aa1: 5.40m ²
b1	Collector Belt (1x20m)	Cb1: £6,877	Ob1: £6,937	Ab1:30.00m ²
b4	Powered Belt Curve	Cb4: £31,800	Ob4: £3,631	Ab4: 4.91m ²
c1	Conveyor Lane Q conveyors (1x1.2m)	Cc1: £3,000	Oc1: £2,696	Ac1: 1.80m ²
d1	Standard 2 Level 1 Unit	Cd1: £250,000	Od1: £29,156	Ad1:25.00m ²
d2	Standard 2 Level 3 Unit	Cd2: £750,000	Od2: £62,156	Ad2:33.75m ²
d3	Standard 2 Level 2 Workstation	Cd3: £15,000	Od3: £209	Ad3: 1.00m ²
e1	Flight Lateral (1x28m)	Ce1: £14,894	Oe1: £8,177	Ae1: 210m ²
e3	Flight Racetracks (1x40m length unit)	Ce3: £21,972	Oe3:£7,392	Ae3:504.0m ²
e7	Merge VSU	Ce7: £32,417	Oe7: £5,196	Ae7: 4.50m ²
e9	Divert VSU	Ce9: £31,336	Oe9: £5,196	Ae9: 4.50m ²
e10	Indexing	Ce10: £9,725	Oe10: £2,098	Ae10:5.40m ²
e11	Sortation induct	Ce11: £38,900	Oe11: £3,816	Ae11:5.40m ²
e12	Sortation loop (10m per lateral pitch needed)	Ce12: £6,483	Oe12:£816	Ae12:15.0m ²
e21	Power bus (1 off assembly) unit)	Ce21: £1,439,306	Oe21: £1,000	Ae21: 0m ²
e22	Scanner array (1 unit)	Ce22: £39,981	Oe22: £3,109	Ae22: .20m ²
f2	ULD Powered Rollerbed (1x2m rollerbed)	Cf2: £20,000	Of2: £5,262	Af2: 16.00m ²
g1	Robotics (Grenzbach)	Cg1: £392,000	Og1: £4,196	Ag1: 0.00m ²
g2	Manipulator (RTT type unit)	Cg2: £58,000	Og2: £4,196	Ag2: 6.00m ²
h1	Power Conditioner (1 off per facility)	Ch1: £5,000	Oh1: £663	Ah1: 2.00m ²
h2	Power Incomer (1 off per drive)	Ch2: £1,081	Oh2: £500	Ah2: 0.05m ²
h3	Motor Controllers (1 off)	Ch3: £15,000	Oh3: £1,163	Ah3: 5.00m ²
h4	Programmable Controller Computer (1 off)	Ch4: £10,000	Oh4: £5,272	Ah4: 1.00m ²
h5	Programmable Controller Module (1 off)	Ch5: £2,161	Oh5: £1,272	Ah5: 0.05m ²
h6	Programmable Controller Software	Ch6: £10,000	Oh6: £1,272	Ah6: 0m ²
h7	Sort Allocation Computer	Ch7: £483,010	Oh7: £5,272	Ah7: 2.00m ²
h8	Control System Computer and Display	Ch8: £15,000	Oh8: £10,272	Ah8: 1.00m ²
h9	Safety Equipment (per drive)	Ch9: £1,081	Oh9: £511	Ah9: 0.05m ²
h10	Network (per drive)	Ch10: £108,056	Oh10: £611	Ah10: 0m ²
h11	SCADA system (base hardware / software)	Ch11: £131,828	Oh11: £10,272	Ah11:2.00m ²
i1	Manual loader (lateral racetrack chute)	N/A	Oi1: £30,850	Ai1: 1.50m ²
i2	Manual loader (Robotics support & top up)	N/A	Oi2: £30,850	Ai2: 1.50m ²
i3	Manual loader (RTT)	N/A	Oi3: £30,850	Ai3: 1.50m ²
j1	Platform (per m run)	Cj1: £1,081	Oj1: £10	Aj1: 0m ²
j3	Stairs (per ladder)	Cj3: £2,161	Oj3: £15	Aj3: 0m ²
k1	Fire door (per door)	Ck1: £14,047	Ok1: £1,000	Ak1: 2.00m ²

5.1.2 What factors could affect a financial comparison of BHSs?

There are factors which can have an affect on the commercial comparison of the BHSs. The full set of test sensitivities, as outlined later in Table 7, were applied, to investigate how the financial results could be affected by factors that might vary, such as, though not limited to:

- (i) Inflation;
- (ii) Regional/country staff costs;
- (iii) Regional /country capital cost variations;
- (iv) Regional /country staff bag loading performance.

5.1.3 What financial assessment approach should be used to compare BHSs?

The model was then constructed to address the aforementioned issues. The processes, component descriptions, functions, the BHS component and assembly rules are all embedded within the model equations (see section 3.3). As explained within Chapter 2, the WLCC NPV financial appraisal technique is widely adopted by airports when assessing and comparing the overall long term costs of major developments such as BHS developments, which contain revenue income streams such as the bag processing charge. It is for this reason that this WLCC NPV approach has been programmed into the model (see Appendix I WLCC NPV worksheet).

5.2 Capital costs model equations

This section explains the equations used to surmise the capital, and operating costs of the BHS solutions that have been constructed within the model environment. The individual component capital costs, and component areas are defined within Table 6.

The total capital cost of a BHS solution is given by the equation:

$$\text{CAPEX}_{\text{Total}} = \text{CAPEX}_{\text{Baggage System}} + \text{CAPEX}_{\text{Baggage Building}} + \text{On Cost} \dots 33$$

Where

- (i) Building rate_{CONSTRUCTION} = £2,981/m². This is the building construction cost per m² rate, and is further defined within the following clause 5.10 Baggage Building: Capital Cost Rates.

- (ii) CAPEX_{Baggage System}

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum [(Na1xCa1)+(Nb1xCb1)+(Nb4xCb4)+(Nc1xCc1)+(Nd1xCd1)+(Nd2xCd2) \\ & +(Nd3xCd3)+(Ne1xCe1)+(Ne3xCe3)+(Ne7xCe7)+(Ne9xCe9)+(Ne10xCe10) \\ & +(Ne11xCe11)+(Ne12xCe12)+(Ne21xCe21)+(Ne22xCe22)+(Nf2xCf2)+ \\ & (Ng1xCg1)+(Ng2xCg2)+(Nh1xCh1)+(Nh2xCh2)+(Nh3xCh3)+(Nh4xCh4)+ \\ & (Nh5xCh5)+(Nh6xCh6)+(Nh7xCh7)+(Nh8xCh8)+(Nh9xCh9)+(Nh10xCh10) \\ & +(Nh11xCh11)+(Nj1xCj1)+(Nj3xCj3)+(Nk1xCk1)] \end{aligned}$$

- (iii) CAPEX_{Baggage Building} =

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum [((Na1xAa1)+(Nb1xAb1)+(Nb4xAb4)+(Nc1xAc1)+(Nd1xAd1)+ \\ & (Nd2xAd2)+(Nd3xAd3)+(Ne1xAe1)+(Ne3xAe3)+(Ne7xAe7)+(Ne9xAe9)+ \\ & (Ne10xAe10)+(Ne11xAe11)+(Ne12xAe12)+(Ne21xAe21)+(Ne22xAe22)+ \\ & (Nf2xAf2)+(Ng1xAg1)+(Ng2xAg2)+(Nh1xAh1)+(Nh2xAh2)+(Nh3xAh3)+ \\ & (Nh4xAh4)+(Nh5xAh5)+(Nh6xAh6)+(Nh7xAh7)+(Nh8xAh8)+(Nh9xAh9)+ \\ & (Nh10xAh10)+(Nh11xAh11)+(Ni1xAi1)+(Ni2xAi2)+(Ni3xAi3)+(Nj1xAj1)+ \\ & (Nj3xAj3)+(Nk1xAk1)) \times \text{Building rate}_{\text{CONSTRUCTION}}] \end{aligned}$$

- (iv) The number (quantity) of each component used is defined within clauses 3.3.2 (Na1) through to 3.3.36 (Nk1) inclusive.
- (v) On cost is calculated to be the ratio $0.47 \times \text{CAPEX}_{\text{Baggage System}}$. This ratio is defined within the following clause 5.7 Commercial WLCC NPV Worksheet.

5.3 Operating costs model equations

This section explains what is contained within the operating costs of the BHS and the encompassing BHS building. The individual BHS component level annual operating costs, and component areas are defined within Table 6.

The total operating cost of a BHS solution is given by the equation:

$$\text{OPEX}_{\text{Total}} = \text{OPEX}_{\text{Baggage System}} + \text{OPEX}_{\text{Baggage Building}} \quad \dots\dots 34$$

Where

- (i) $\text{OPEX}_{\text{Baggage System}} =$

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum[(\text{Na1} \times \text{Oa1}) + (\text{Nb1} \times \text{Ob1}) + (\text{Nb4} \times \text{Ob4}) + (\text{Nc1} \times \text{Oc1}) + (\text{Nd1} \times \text{Od1}) + (\text{Nd2} \times \text{Od2}) \\ & + (\text{Nd3} \times \text{Od3}) + (\text{Ne1} \times \text{Oe1}) + (\text{Ne3} \times \text{Oe3}) + (\text{Ne7} \times \text{Oe7}) + (\text{Ne9} \times \text{Oe9}) + (\text{Ne10} \times \text{Oe10}) \\ & + (\text{Ne11} \times \text{Oe11}) + (\text{Ne12} \times \text{Oe12}) + (\text{Ne21} \times \text{Oe21}) + (\text{Ne22} \times \text{Oe22}) + (\text{Nf2} \times \text{Of2}) + \\ & (\text{Ng1} \times \text{Og1}) + (\text{Ng2} \times \text{Og2}) + (\text{Nh1} \times \text{Oh1}) + (\text{Nh2} \times \text{Oh2}) + (\text{Nh3} \times \text{Oh3}) + (\text{Nh4} \times \text{Oh4}) + \\ & (\text{Nh5} \times \text{Oh5}) + (\text{Nh6} \times \text{Oh6}) + (\text{Nh7} \times \text{Oh7}) + (\text{Nh8} \times \text{Oh8}) + (\text{Nh9} \times \text{Oh9}) + (\text{Nh10} \times \text{Oh10}) \\ & + (\text{Nh11} \times \text{Oh11}) + (\text{Ni1} \times \text{Oi1}) + (\text{Ni2} \times \text{Oi2}) + (\text{Ni3} \times \text{Oi3}) + (\text{Nj1} \times \text{Oj1}) + (\text{Nj3} \times \text{Oj3}) + (\text{N} \\ & \text{k1} \times \text{Ok1})] \end{aligned}$$
- (ii) $\text{Building}_{\text{HVAC}} = \text{£}12/\text{m}^2/\text{Annum}$ rate. This is the annual rate per m^2 allocated for heating, ventilation and lighting of the BHS building. These are 2011 quarter 4 prices, Briggs (2009).

(iii) Building MAINTENANCE = £54/m²/Annum) rate. This is the annual rate per m² allocated for Maintenance Building of the BHS building. These are 2011 quarter 4 prices, Briggs (2009).

(iv) OPEX_{Baggage Building} =

$$\begin{aligned} & \Sigma [((Na1xAa1)+(Nb1xAb1)+(Nb4xAb4)+(Nc1xAc1)+(Nd1xAd1)+ \\ & (Nd2xAd2)+(Nd3xAd3)+(Ne1xAe1)+(Ne3xAe3)+(Ne7xAe7)+(Ne9xAe9)+ \\ & (Ne10xAe10)+(Ne11xAe11)+(Ne12xAe12)+(Ne21xAe21)+(Ne22xAe22)+ \\ & (Nf2xAf2)+(Ng1xAg1)+(Ng2xAg2)+(Nh1xAh1)+(Nh2xAh2)+(Nh3xAh3)+ \\ & (Nh4xAh4)+(Nh5xAh5)+(Nh6xAh6)+(Nh7xAh7)+(Nh8xAh8)+(Nh9xAh9)+ \\ & (Nh10xAh10)+(Nh11xAh11)+(Ni1xAi1)+(Ni2xAi2)+(Ni3xAi3)+(Nj1xAj1)+ \\ & (Nj3xAj3)+(Nk1xAk1)) \times (Building_{HVAC} + Building_{MAINTENANCE})] \end{aligned}$$

(v) The CAPEX_{Total} and the OPEX_{Total} for each of the BHS types are then entered into the WLCC NPV worksheet as described in section 5.7 that follows.

5.4 Model: Financial appraisal technique (FAT)

This section explains which FAT tool has been used within the model. The financial issues that are unique to the development and operation of BHSs are defined.

As denoted in section 2.2 during the research stage it was established that airport operators use FAT evaluation techniques which calculate the IRR, EBITDA and WLCC NPV. They use these FAT tools when considering the merits of future major capital development projects. The question then presented itself: which FAT tool should be used that will best evaluate the value of the various types of BHSs that are

to be compared? New BHSs will have considerable capital⁴⁶ and revenue⁴⁷ costs. The revenue operating cost is an annual repeated cost through the lifespan of the project, which in some instances is not fully recovered at all airports, through a single separate income recovery mechanism. The User Group are charged to operate BHSs through a dedicated “bag charge” and the BHS capital development costs are commonly recovered through a landing fee, which is usually part of a group of projects within a much larger capital investment plan. This thesis concentrates on the comparison of the WLCC commercial viability of the BHS and its associated BHS building infrastructure. The FAT used within this thesis encapsulates the capital cost, operating cost and income revenue stream (bag charge) variables of just the BHSs. The WLCC NPV FAT provides meaningful comparable results when capital costs, operating costs, and income stream variables are provided. The WLCC NPV approach was selected as the commercial model to adopt to compare the various types of baggage development that are designed by the model. The WLCC NPV approach is internationally regarded as an appropriate financial appraisal technique to use, and is widely used in the engineering industry, construction industry, and by accountants, that are trying to establish the optimum financial return of various developments.

5.5 Assumptions: model

The model incorporates the following assumptions / settings that have been used within the programming:

- (i) The model has been programmed to develop BHS that require an Early Baggage Store using the defined component c1. This is based on the lane conveyor technology instead of the crane and rack solution. The lane solution

⁴⁶ Capital Baggage Costs: Definition - these are the costs to purchase and install the BHS

⁴⁷ Revenue Baggage Costs: Definition - These are the costs to run the baggage operation

occupies more space than the comparative crane solution and consumes more energy;

- (ii) A fully automatic BHS incorporates a 25% proportion of robotic build cell technology, and a 75% proportion of conventional lateral build technology;
- (iii) A semi-automatic BHS incorporates a 25% proportion of RTT build cell technology, and a 75% proportion of conventional lateral build technology;
- (iv) A manual BHS incorporates 100% conventional racetrack output device technology;
- (v) The energy consumption calculation uses an energy unit rate of £0.16 per KW hour (this is 2011 UK rate available to a UK airport consumer) this rate shall vary from consumer to consumer, and from year to year;
- (vi) All assets take 1 year to build and then all are put into full operation;
- (vii) Business land rates have not been included within the model;
- (viii) All assets are paid for in year 1;
- (ix) All assets have a residual value of zero GB£'s in Year 15;
- (x) Building assets have an asset life of 15 years;
- (xi) Baggage system assets have an asset life of 15 years (BHS suppliers normally specify a 15 year life span for BHS equipment);
- (xii) Inflation is applied to the annual OPEX and Bag charge, where 1% (Low), 3% (Base), and 7% (High). The low, base and, high inflation values were selected following reference to data obtained from the UK Office of National Statistics (see Figure 6);
- (xiii) The WLCC NPV calculation is based on Q4 2011 CAPEX and OPEX costs;
- (xiv) The model does not address issues associated with staff health and safety;

- (xv) After the initial capital spend investments have been made, the model makes no further provision for capital spend throughout the 15 year life period, All BHS equipment and buildings are considered to be maintainable.

5.5.1 Inflation rate duration

When calculating the WLCC NPV, the model references the inflation rate that is set as an input at the start (year 1); this rate is then maintained throughout the lifespan of the project (to year “N”). In reality inflation rates rarely remain constant over prolonged periods (refer to section 2.2.1 - Inflation Ranges Figure 6). Whilst this programmed in assumption is reasonable for experimentation purposes, the reality is that a model predicted WLCC NPV will be not be absolute due to inflation variations that are likely to be witnessed in the real world environment.

5.5.2 Construction time

The model assumes that a BHS asset takes 1 year to construct, then the asset is put into full operational use. The model also assumes that all assets are paid for by the end of year 1. Whilst this construction period is realistic, some projects can take less than or longer than 1 year to build. BHSs that take less than or longer than the stated assumed 1 year build period, would respectively bring forward, or delay the income stream from any bag charge. This in turn would change the WLCC NPVs during this period.

5.5.3 BHS land costs

The cost of the land that is required to build an airport BHS on, can vary considerably from airport to airport. Land prices can be influenced by, though not limited to:

- (i) Supply and demand of available land;
- (ii) Planning permission status of available land;
- (iii) Government policy for the development of airports on identified land;
- (iv) Environmental sensitivity of available land.

If the land is not already owned by the airport then this would need to be taken into account within the WLCC NPV capital costs provisions. Since the variation in land costs can be significant, and because many airports already own the land that BHSs get built on, the model is programmed to assume that there is a zero cost to purchase land to build the BHS.

5.6 Capacity enabling and asset replacement developments

A capacity enabling BHS development is one which provides further new BHS throughput capacity, whereas a life expired asset replacement development merely replaces assets which are worn out, and does not increase BHS throughput capacity.

The capacity enabling developments can be built on green field sites, or be developed on brown field sites. The life expired asset replacement developments usually retain the existing BHS building infrastructure.

The WLCC NPV results provided in Chapter 6 that follows relate to the development of green field BHS sites since it is assumed in the model that there is a need to build a new building to house the designed BHS. Brown field sites that use existing infrastructure are not represented in the WLCC NPV results contained in Chapter 6.

The Specialist Group, and the User Group defined in Chapter 1 will need to calculate the CAPEX, OPEX, and WLCC NPVs of capacity enabling developments, and life expired asset replacement developments. The results contained in Appendix H provide CAPEX and OPEX information for both the building and the BHS components for the stated bag flow rates, and input sensitivities.

5.7 Commercial WLCC NPV worksheet

The CAPEX and OPEX values that are determined within the assembly environment worksheet (see Appendix E) are then processed through the WLCC NPV cost worksheet for each flight schedule input (see Appendix I). This section explains what factors are incorporated, and how the WLCC NPV values are determined.

The WLCC NPV equation takes into account: (i) Capital costs, (ii) Operating costs, and (iii) Income from the Bag Charges. The Capital Cost is built up of: (i) Baggage Building CAPEX, (ii) Baggage System CAPEX, and the Construction "On-costs" capital expenditure. These values are inputs from the assembly environment worksheet (see Appendix I).

The capital cost of the baggage system and the baggage building is recorded in the WLCC NPV worksheet at the beginning of year 1. As the baggage handling system and the baggage building age, so their worth or value is reduced. At the end of the declared asset life (15 years⁴⁸ for the BHS, and 15 years⁴⁹ for the Baggage Building), these assets have a residual book value⁵⁰ of zero GB pounds.

⁴⁸ BHS life: 15 years is the guaranteed life period declared by BHS system suppliers for a BHS solution.

The “on costs”⁵¹ of the assets were calculated by multiplying the BHS CAPEX by the factor 0.47. This factor value was derived from an actual cost plan of a recent major BHS project based in the UK. These values do naturally change, depending on the complexity of the BHS project, the 0.47 value used was verified by an independent cost consultant as being a typical percentage to use, Bellamy P (2009).

The operating cost is calculated to be a year on year cost within the WLCC NPV calculation worksheet. The operating cost incorporates: (i) Baggage OPEX (including inflation), and (ii) Building OPEX (including inflation). Both the annual Baggage OPEX, and the annual Building OPEX values are derived from the assembly environment worksheet, and each year the declared 3% inflation is added.

The WLCC NPV calculation incorporates a bag charge income stream per annum. The airport operator often will charge the airlines for the quantity of bags that it processes through the airport.

5.7.1 Bag charge income stream

The bag charge is calculated by multiplying the Bags / Hour rate as shown on the input variables worksheet by 18 hours⁵² (the number of operational hours in a day) and then multiplying this by 365 days in a year. This value is then multiplied by the

⁴⁹ Building life: 15 years is the guaranteed life period commonly used by airports for airport BHS buildings. This period can vary between 15 -25 years for commercial BHS building assets. Once a building life has expired it is common to demolish or re-life the building asset.

⁵⁰ Residual book value: This is the value of an asset at the end of its life period, noted in Year 15 to be £0 for both the baggage handling system and the baggage building assets. No residual value.

⁵¹ On costs: These are the costs of designing and managing the construction of the BHS and the BHS buildings.

⁵² Operational hours are denoted to be 18 hours per day: Heathrow, Stansted, and Gatwick airports typically have night time shut down periods between 24:00 hours, and 06:00 hours, this means the BHS can be operational for 18 hours per day. These examples have been used to determine a realistic operational day period.

BHS utilization factor⁵³ (50%), as all BHSs are not fully utilized throughout the operational day. The result is then multiplied by the OPEX factor⁵⁴ declared on the input variables worksheet, and then multiplied by the set bag charge value (£1/bag⁵⁵). In each year of operation the bag charge is increased by the inflation factor, which is set according to the inflation rate percentage stated in the sensitivity test (See table 7 that follows).

The BAG CHARGE_{Total} equation is then given by:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{BAG CHARGE}_{Total} & \dots\dots 35 \\
 n &= 15 \\
 &= \left[\text{Bags/Hour} \times 18 \times 365 \times 50\% \times \text{OPEX factor} \times \text{£1} \times \text{Inflation factor} \right] \\
 n &= 0
 \end{aligned}$$

Where

- (i) $n = \text{year } 0 \text{ to } 15 \text{ inclusive.}$
- (ii) Inflation rate percentage is 1% (0.01 - low), 3% (0.03 - base) and 7% (0.07 - high).
- (iii) The inflation factor = $(1 + \text{Inflation rate percentage})^n$

5.7.2 WLCC NPV calculation

The WLCC NPV at the 15 year period is the true measure of value as this coincides with the life period of the BHS asset. Whilst the guaranteed life of a BHS is normally 15 years these BHSs are often kept in operation for longer than this period. Once the BHS asset has been fully paid for, and on the premise that the annual OPEX total is

⁵³ BHS utilization factor 50%: This factor value will vary from airport to airport depending on the demand forecast flight schedule. 50% utilization represents a BHS which typically incorporates morning and afternoon peak periods and lower BHS utilization outside of these periods.

⁵⁴ The OPEX factor is used to adjust the bag charge to local national variations.

⁵⁵ Bag Charge £1/bag processed: This value can be set to recover the cost of operating the BHS. A consistent nominal value of £1 / bag processed was set for all experiments.

less than annual income revenue generated through the bag charge, it would then be possible to generate positive WLCC NPV cash flows.

The bag charge value that is used can significantly affect the payback period for a BHS development. This is because the quantity of bags processed within a BHS is generally a large value per annum, even when it is assumed that the BHS has a realistic 50% BHS utilization factor.

The WLCC NPV equation is then given by:

$$WLCC\ NPV = \dots\dots 36$$

$$\sum_{n=0}^{n=15} [((CAPEX_{Total} + OPEX_{Total} + BAG\ CHARGE_{Total}) \times DCF)]$$

Source: Atril, (2013), Haste Doug, (2014)

Where...

- (i) CAPEX_{Total} is a capital outgoing (negative value).
- (ii) OPEX_{Total} is an annual operating cost outgoing (negative value).
- (iii) BAG CHARGE_{Total} is noted to be an annual accumulative income stream (positive value), that effectively reduces the WLCC. Please refer to the preceding clause 5.7.1 Bag charge income stream for further details.
- (iv) n = year 0 to 15 inclusive.
- (v) DCF = Discounted Cash Flow Factor in year "n" producing a present value

The DCF equation is given by:

$$DCF = \frac{Cn}{(1+r)^n} \dots\dots 37$$

Source: Atril, (2013), Briscoe, (1990), Tracy, (2012).

Where...

C_n = Cash flow in year n .

r = Discount rate ($3.375\%^{56} + 4.5\%^{57} = 7.875\%$). This discount rate calculation method determines the minimum expected return on capital, source: Tracy, (2012)

5.8 International CAPEX / OPEX / Inflation variations

This section explains the international capital (CAPEX), and operating (OPEX) cost multiplying factors that exist, and that can be applied to the model. These factors are used when trying to establish the relative cost of worldwide developments, when measured against the cost of projects delivered in the United Kingdom; these factors are provided by IATA (2004). This section (see Appendix K) provides sample CAPEX and OPEX factors for selective countries, and explains the reasons why the maximum, and the minimum factors were selected for the tests that were carried out. The cost to deliver, and operate BHSs varies according to which country the development is residing within. The reasons why there are international cost variations includes, but is not limited to:

- Construction staff wages;
- Operational staff wages;
- Commodity prices;
- Land prices
- Raw material supply costs;
- Currency exchange rates;

⁵⁶ Bank of England 20th Oct 2013: Base rate average (3rd Dec 2001 - 31st Dec 2011) = 3.375%

⁵⁷ CA Bank 20th Oct 2013: Typical corporate lending rate = 4.5%

The IATA (2004) Airport Development Reference Manual (Chapter U5) provides published adjustment factor⁵⁸ values for the major regions/countries of world. These factors permit the base UK prices stated to be adjusted to the region/country of interest. As the factors were benchmarked against UK prices, the CAPEX, and OPEX factors for the UK are noted to be a factor of 1.0. All of these published factors (total of 68 country specific factors) for the different regions of the world were added up, and it was noted that the maximum CAPEX / OPEX adjustment factor relative to UK prices was a 110% factor which was specific to the region of Asia Japan. The minimum CAPEX / OPEX adjustment factor relative to UK prices was a 19% factor which was specific to the region of Asia India. The mean CAPEX / OPEX adjustment factor of all 68 regions was calculated to be 59%. The 19% (Low), 59% (Base), and 110% (High) adjustment factors were then used within the test sensitivities that are detailed in Table 7 that follows.

⁵⁸ CAPEX / OPEX adjustment factor: The full list of IATA adjustment factors are in APPENDIX K

Table 7 defines the experimentation test sensitivities that have been completed.

Table 7: Experimentation test scenarios

Note: Bold text denotes the variable changed within the sensitivity test.

<u>Experiment sensitivity</u>	<u>Input data used</u>
BASE reference mid-range scenario World average	59% CAPEX factor applied 59% OPEX factor applied 3% inflation applied 2bags/min loading rate
High CAPEX factor scenario Asia Japan.	110% CAPEX factor applied 59% OPEX factor applied 3% inflation applied 2bags/min loading rate
Low CAPEX factor scenario Asia India	19% CAPEX factor applied 59% OPEX factor applied 3% inflation applied 2bags/min loading rate
High OPEX factor scenario Asia Japan.	59% CAPEX factor applied 110% OPEX factor applied 3% inflation applied 2bags/min loading rate
Low OPEX factor scenario Asia India	59% CAPEX factor applied 19% OPEX factor applied 3% inflation applied 2bags/min loading rate
High inflation rate scenario UK Office statistics high point	59% CAPEX factor applied 59% OPEX factor applied 7% inflation applied 2bags/min loading rate
Low inflation rate scenario UK Office statistics low point	59% CAPEX factor applied 59% OPEX factor applied 1% inflation applied 2bags/min loading rate
High staff loading rate (Bags/Min) scenario Industry measured high rate	59% CAPEX factor applied 59% OPEX factor applied 3% inflation applied 3bags/min loading rate
Low loading rate (Bags/Min) scenario Industry measured low rate	59% CAPEX factor applied 59% OPEX factor applied 3% inflation applied 1bags/min loading rate

The experiment sensitivities were designed to test the WLCC NPV impact of realistic variables that can confront a BHS designer, and/or an airport BHS developer trying to select the appropriate flight build technology.

The test sensitivities were completed using these three ranges of CAPEX / OPEX as well as ranges for inflation, and staff loading rate. The WLCC NPV output from these tests, have been recorded into the results database which is provided in Appendix H.

5.9 Staff Costs

This section explains how the base staff costs were derived from interviews from airline industry specialists, and how these costs were dealt within the model, and in turn informed the results documented in Appendix H.

BHSs require staff operatives to enable them to function. These operatives carry out three functions: (i) drive baggage tugs between the baggage hall, and the aircraft; (ii) remove bags from the BHS output positions, and; (iii) control the route selection of the BHS which the BHS does not automatically do.

To calculate the operating cost of any speculative baggage handling system, it is necessary to understand the staff salaries of the people that would operate the baggage system in total. Staff cost data is commercially sensitive, and has been difficult to obtain. To overcome this, staff cost questionnaires were discussed with handlers at Heathrow airport, and Gatwick airport. Completed questionnaires were received from IATA, Stewart, (2010), American Airlines, Dolye, (2010), Air Canada, Taylor,

(2010), the London airline operating committee (AOC), Shortland (2010) and BAA, Cowper (2010).

During the interviews each of these individuals was requested to provide a BHS staff salary price (equivalent in GB pounds sterling Q4 2011). Appendix G explains the results of this survey of staff costs. The salary amounts did not include the full cost of employment, and excluded items such as staff benefit costs (e.g. company pension, employment taxes etc.). This cost was not included because it can vary considerably from country to country around the world, and if included would distort the results. It can be seen in Appendix G that the base, averaged staff cost, used throughout the investigation was £28,550. This value is used for each of the following component resources:

(i) Component I1	Handling Agent	Manual loader
(ii) Component I2	Manual loader	(Robotics support & top up)
(iii) Component I3	Manual loader	(RTT)

These base staff costs are multiplied by the OPEX factor input previously described in section 5.3.

The staff salary prices used within the model, represent a realistic cross section of market prices. Furthermore the salary costs are then regionally changed within the model whereby they are subjected to the high, low, and base case OPEX factors.

5.10 Baggage building: Capital cost rates

This section clarifies how the capital cost of the building has been determined using internationally published building rate data. The assumptions used are also defined.

The capital cost of the building is derived by establishing the total area of all of the components used within the BHS type. This value is then multiplied by the building rate as denoted in Appendix B on the input variables worksheet. IATA (2004) note that the regional terminal building rate to be £2,209/m², and the international terminal building rate to be £3,480/m². A real airport cost plan (based in the UK) provided a steel frame / cladding solution price of £3,254/m². The average of these rates was noted to be £2,981/m², and this value was used consistently within all the experiments (see Appendix B item 22).

The building CAPEX calculation is repeated for each of the BHS solutions types (manual/semi-automatic/fully automatic) as they each occupy different areas.

This means that different BHS building costs exist for the different BHS build solution technologies. This building cost approach has its limitations, which include:

- (i) The presence of building columns, and heating and ventilation systems have not been factored in the area requirement of the building;
- (ii) The presence of tug, and dolly⁵⁹ parking and passing road ways have not been factored into the area requirement of the building;
- (iii) A common unit width for conveyors, including maintenance walkways of 1.5m has been provided;

⁵⁹ Dolly – this is the name of the trailer unit that holds ULDs.

- (iv) This approach does not take into account the geometry of existing BHS halls, and assumes that the building can be built on an ideal green/brown field site with no restrictions;
- (v) The building cost excludes any planning and land purchase costs that might exist;

Whilst there are limitations to this approach, the real intelligence is being able to compare the building costs financial delta⁶⁰ for the three separate BHS flight build options, where a constant building area rate is applied to the different building areas. This approach maintains accuracy, and also simplifies the comparison process allowing a truly like for like comparison of building costs to be obtained.

5.11 Chapter summary

In summary Chapter 5 has explained how the capital and the operating costs have been calculated. The assumptions imbedded within the model have been explained along with limitations of how the building costs were derived.

The method by which the WLCC NPV values have been calculated has been explained, along with the CAPEX, and OPEX variations that can be internationally expected. In turn these variations in CAPEX and OPEX are embedded into the experiments scenarios, and used as inputs to the model, so that the likely maximum, and minimum capital and revenue cost boundary conditions are fully tested, and the findings represented within the results that follow in Chapter 6.

⁶⁰ Financial delta: Magnitude of cost between minimum BHS/Building cost solution, and maximum BHS/Building cost solution.

6. RESULTS

6.1 Introduction to results

This section explains what results have been obtained and included in Appendix H.

The WLCC NPV results have been graphed to show the relationship between the three types of BHS solutions being evaluated. The graphs show:

1. Bags/Hr versus WLCC NPV total for each of the test sensitivities;
2. Bags/Hr versus WLCC NPV Summary Scatter Diagram all scenarios: long haul only, short haul only, and short haul and long haul mix;
3. Bags/Hr vs WLCC NPV Summary Block Diagram all scenarios: long haul only, short haul only, and short haul and long haul mix;
4. Close Inspections⁶¹ of Cumulative Cost versus Year of operation for specific scenarios of particular interest, and importance.

6.2 Experimentation output (Matrix of data)

It was necessary to automate the process of running the tests to ensure that they were carried out in precisely the same way, and to ensure that the data output was recorded consistently. To achieve this aim a macro test script module was created within the model as denoted in subroutine macro defined within Appendix J.

6.3 Experiment group: Short haul flights / hour

It can be seen from the short haul only results provided in Appendix H that the short haul flight experiments consisted of increasing the quantity of short haul flights, in increments of 1 short haul flight per hour, from 1 short haul flight per hour, producing

⁶¹ Close inspection: This examines the year 15 whole life cycle cost results in greater detail, by providing years 1 to 15 inclusive whole life cycle costs for the particular inspection scenarios examined.

180 bags per hour, upto 30 short haul flights per hour producing 5400 bags per hour. This approach ensured that for each sensitivity test all BHS categories A, B and C as defined by IATA (2004) would be evaluated.

6.4 Experiment group: Long haul flights / hour

It can be seen from the long haul only results provided in Appendix H that the long haul flight experiments consisted of increasing the quantity of long haul flights, in increments of 1 long haul flight per hour, from 1 long haul flight per hour, producing 480 bags per hour, upto 15 long haul flights per hour producing 7200 bags per hour. This approach ensured that for each sensitivity test all BHS categories A, B and C as defined by IATA (2004) would be evaluated.

6.5 Experiment group: Mix long / short haul flights / hour

It can be seen from the short haul and long haul mix results provided in Appendix H that these experiments consisted of increasing the quantity of short and long haul flights equally, in increments of 1 short haul flight per hour plus 1 long haul flight per hour, from 1 short haul flight and 1 long haul flight per hour, producing 660 bags per hour, upto 15 short haul and 15 long haul flights per hour producing 9900 bags per hour.

6.6 Sensitivity high CAPEX factor results

This section contains the results of the WLCC NPV experiments where the high CAPEX factor has been applied.

6.6.1 Re: Short haul only

It can be seen in Figure 29 that there are no positive WLCC NPV values. The high capital costs witnessed with the fully automatic BHS equipment solutions cannot be recovered through the OPEX savings that are expected within this type of solution through the use of robotics. The fully automatic BHS solution is the most expensive, the semi-automatic BHS solution is the second cheapest, and the manual BHS solution is the cheapest from a WLCC NPV perspective.

6.6.2 Re: Long haul only

It can be seen in Figure 30 that the processing of long haul flights only permits the higher capital costs on the more automated BHS solutions to be offset by the reduction in staff OPEX costs with these BHSs. Also it can be seen in Appendix H that there is a reduction in baggage hall areas witnessed with the semi-and fully automatic BHS solutions processing long haul flights. The fully automatic BHS solution is the second cheapest, the semi-automatic BHS solution is the cheapest, and the manual BHS solution is the most expensive from a WLCC NPV perspective.

6.6.3 Re: Long haul short haul mix

In Figure 31 the higher capital cost of the automation equipment used within the semi-automated BHSs, can generally be recovered through OPEX savings with this solution. The semi-automated build lends itself to the processing of the long haul component of the applied flight schedule input. This is due to the ability to process demand over the extended long haul flight open period. It can be seen in the results provided in Appendix H that the manual BHSs occupies more area, and require more staff than fully, and semi-automated BHS solutions.

It can be seen that the fully automatic BHS solution is the second cheapest, the semi-automatic BHS solution is the cheapest, and the manual BHS solution is the most expensive from a WLCC NPV perspective.

With reference to Figure 29, Figure 30 and Figure 31 where a high CAPEX is applied it is noted that the introduction of the long haul component to the input flight schedule has a considerable positive impact (reduces) upon the WLCC NPV for the fully and semi-automated BHS solutions.

When processing short haul traffic only, the introduction of the high CAPEX factor promotes the commercial ranking of the manual BHS solution type, when compared to the base conditions.

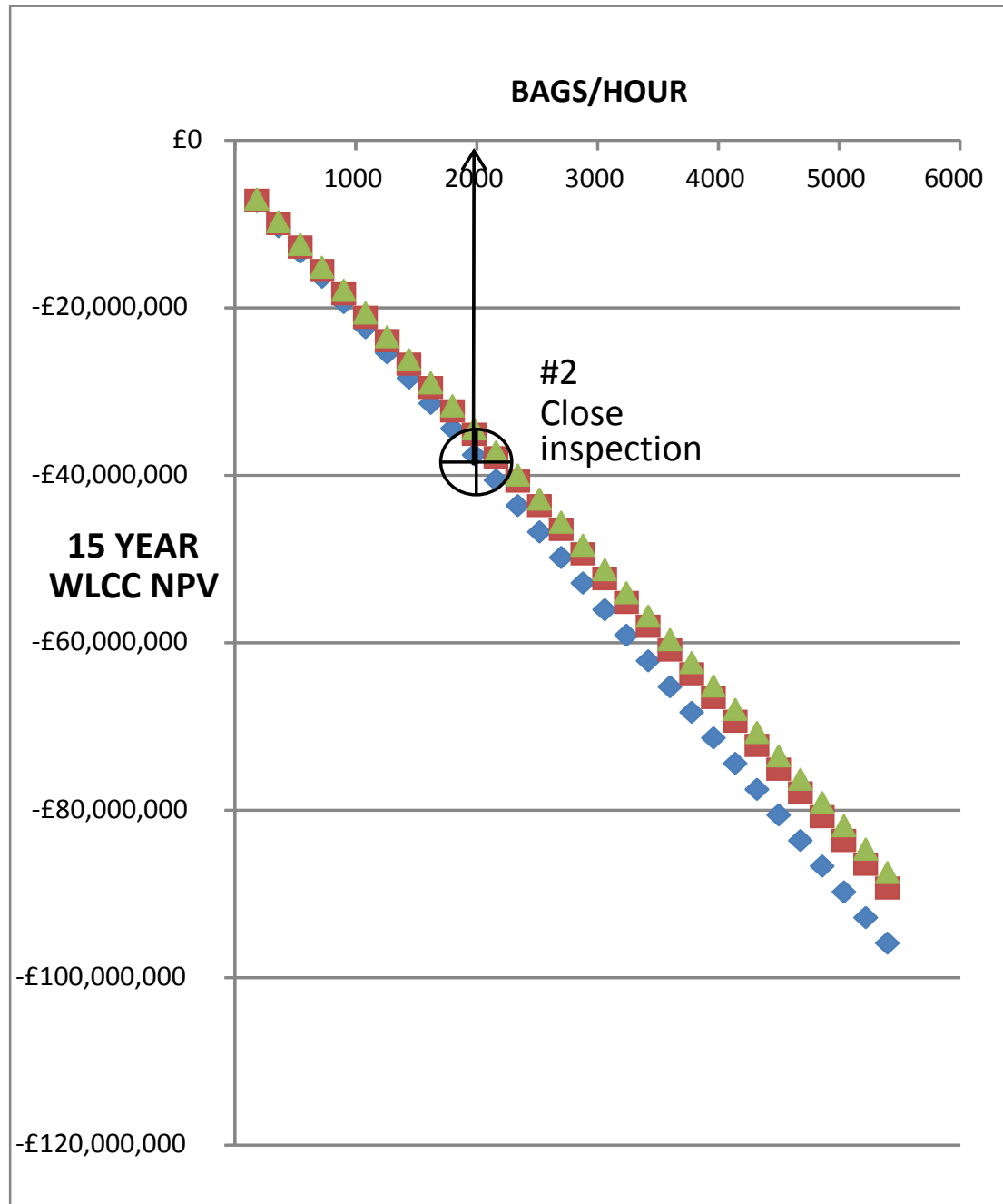
When processing long haul traffic only the introduction of the high CAPEX factor commercially has no effect on the ranking of BHS solutions when compared to the base conditions.

When processing the long haul, and short haul traffic mix the introduction of the high CAPEX factor commercially does not affect the WLCC NPV ranking of any of the of the BHS solution types when compared to the base conditions.

Figure 29: High CAPEX factor scenario: Short haul only⁶²

Key:

- ◆ Fully Automatic BHS
- Semi-Automatic BHS
- ▲ Manual BHS

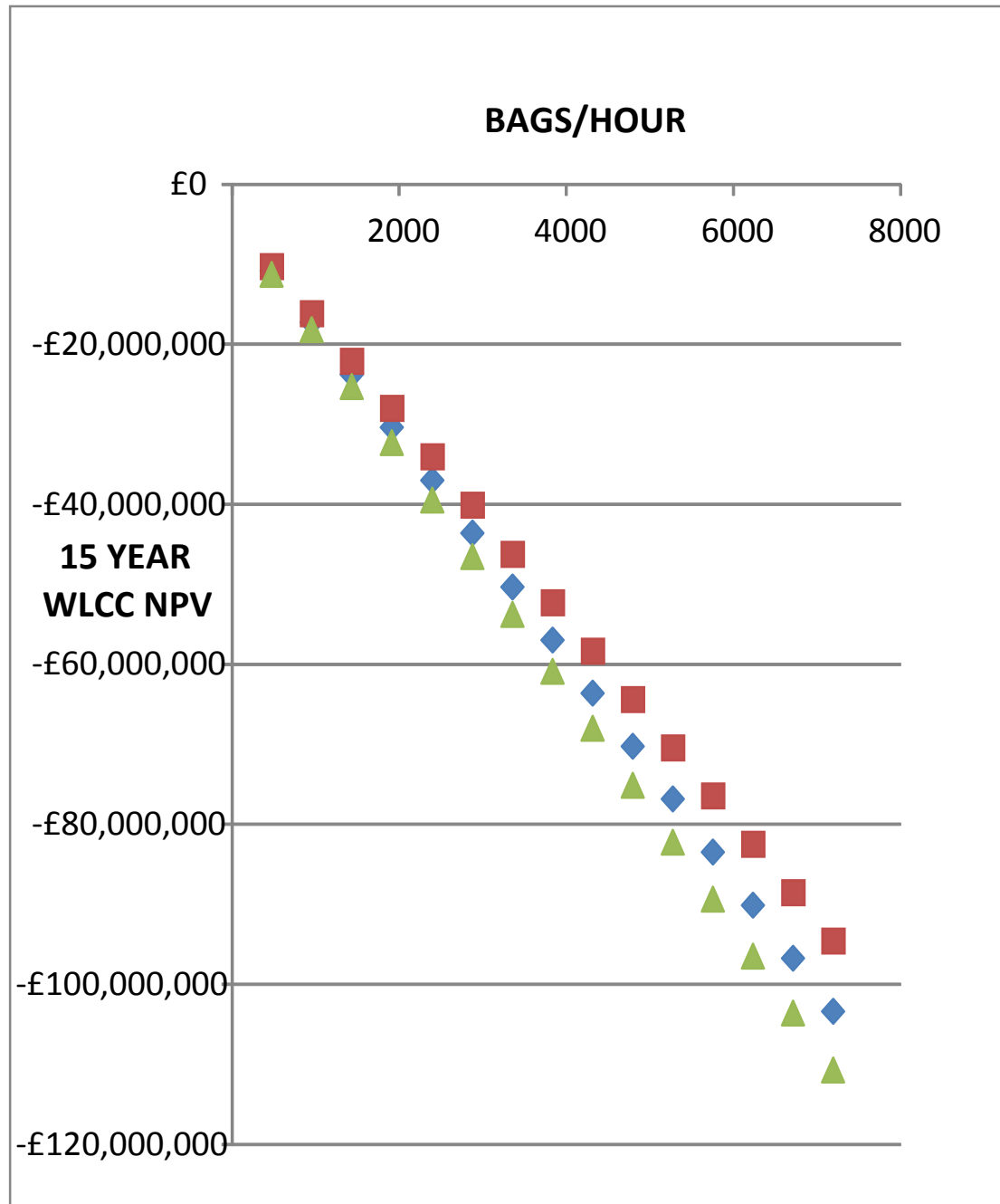


⁶² This figure shows the WLCC NPV results using the following input parameters.
 110% CAPEX factor applied
 59% OPEX factor applied
 3% inflation applied
 2bags/min loading rate

Figure 30: High CAPEX factor scenario: Long haul only⁶³

Key:

- ◆ Fully Automatic BHS
- Semi-Automatic BHS
- ▲ Manual BHS

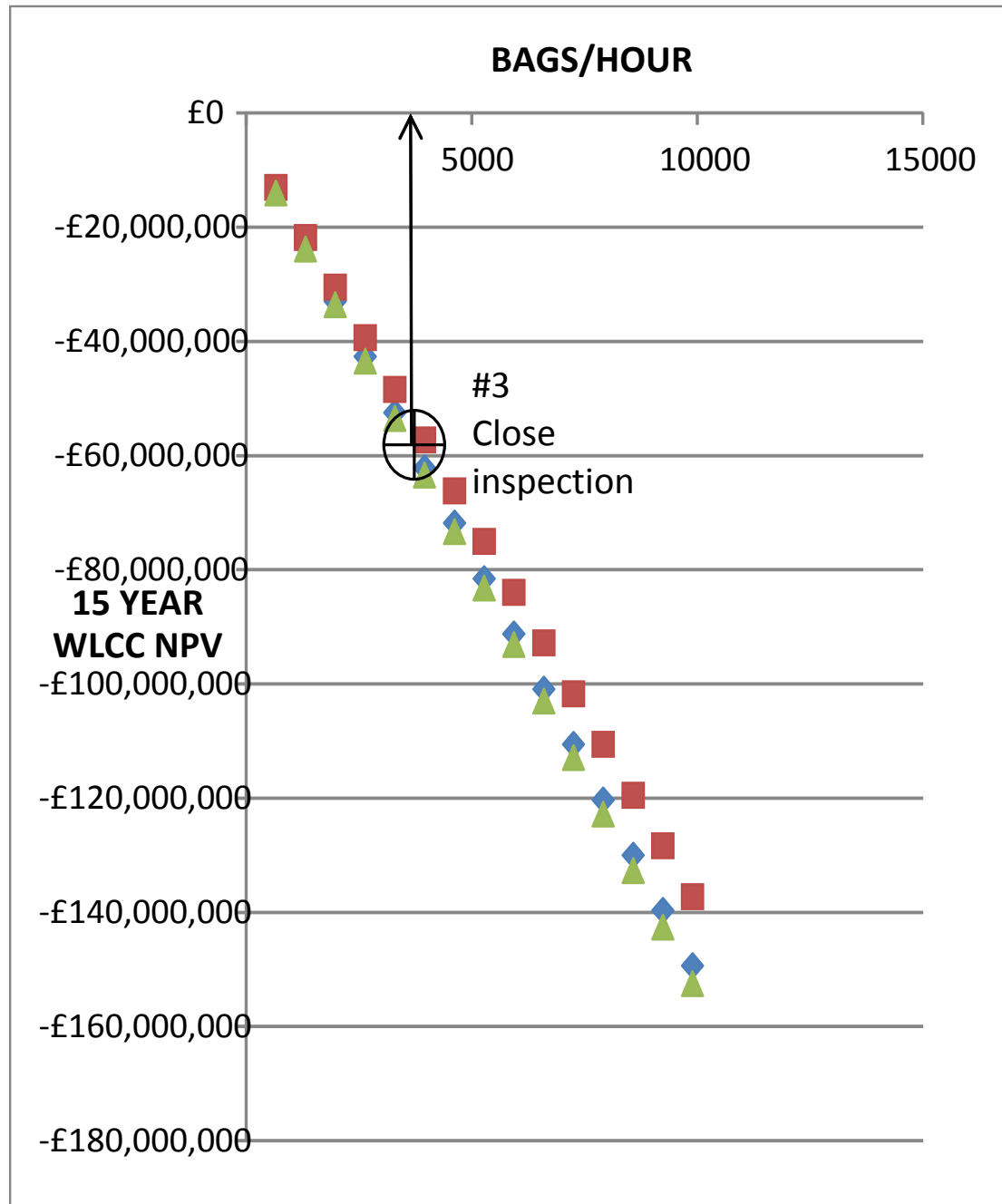


⁶³ This figure shows the WLCC NPV results using the following input parameters.
 110% CAPEX factor applied
 59% OPEX factor applied
 3% inflation applied
 2bags/min loading rate

Figure 31: High CAPEX factor scenario: Long / Short haul mix⁶⁴

Key:

- ◆ Fully Automatic BHS
- Semi-Automatic BHS
- ▲ Manual BHS



⁶⁴ This figure shows the WLCC NPV results using the following input parameters.
 110% CAPEX factor applied
 59% OPEX factor applied
 3% inflation applied
 2bags/min loading rate

6.7 Sensitivity base medium CAPEX factor results

This section contains the results of the WLCC NPV experiments where the base case CAPEX and OPEX factors have been applied.

6.7.1 Re: Short haul only

With reference to Figure 32 the increased efficiency of the semi-automated BHS, coupled with the average staff costs ensure a narrow financial margin between semi and manual BHS solution WLCC NPVs.

It can be seen that the fully automatic BHS solution is the most expensive, the semi-automatic BHS solution is the cheapest, and the manual BHS solution is the second cheapest from a WLCC NPV perspective.

6.7.2 Re: Long haul only

With regards to Figure 33 it can be seen that the semi-automated build lends itself to long haul processing. This is due to the operational ability to process demand over the extended long haul flight open period. The fully automated BHS solution can also efficiently process long haul flights using robotic build equipment albeit with its higher CAPEX.

It can be seen that the fully automatic BHS solution is second cheapest, the semi-automatic BHS solution is the cheapest and the manual BHS solution is the most expensive from a from a WLCC NPV perspective.

6.7.3 Re: Long haul short haul mix

Inspection of Figure 34 shows that when a mix of long haul, and short haul flights are used in the flight schedule the semi-automated build particularly shows a lower WLCC NPV by a significant margin. This is due to the ability to process demand over the longer long haul flight open period, and the higher processing rate and relatively low CAPEX of the RTT units within the semi-automated BHS. With reference to the results seen in Appendix H, this is also due to the need to provide less BHS building area, and the need for less staff, leading to a lower OPEX.

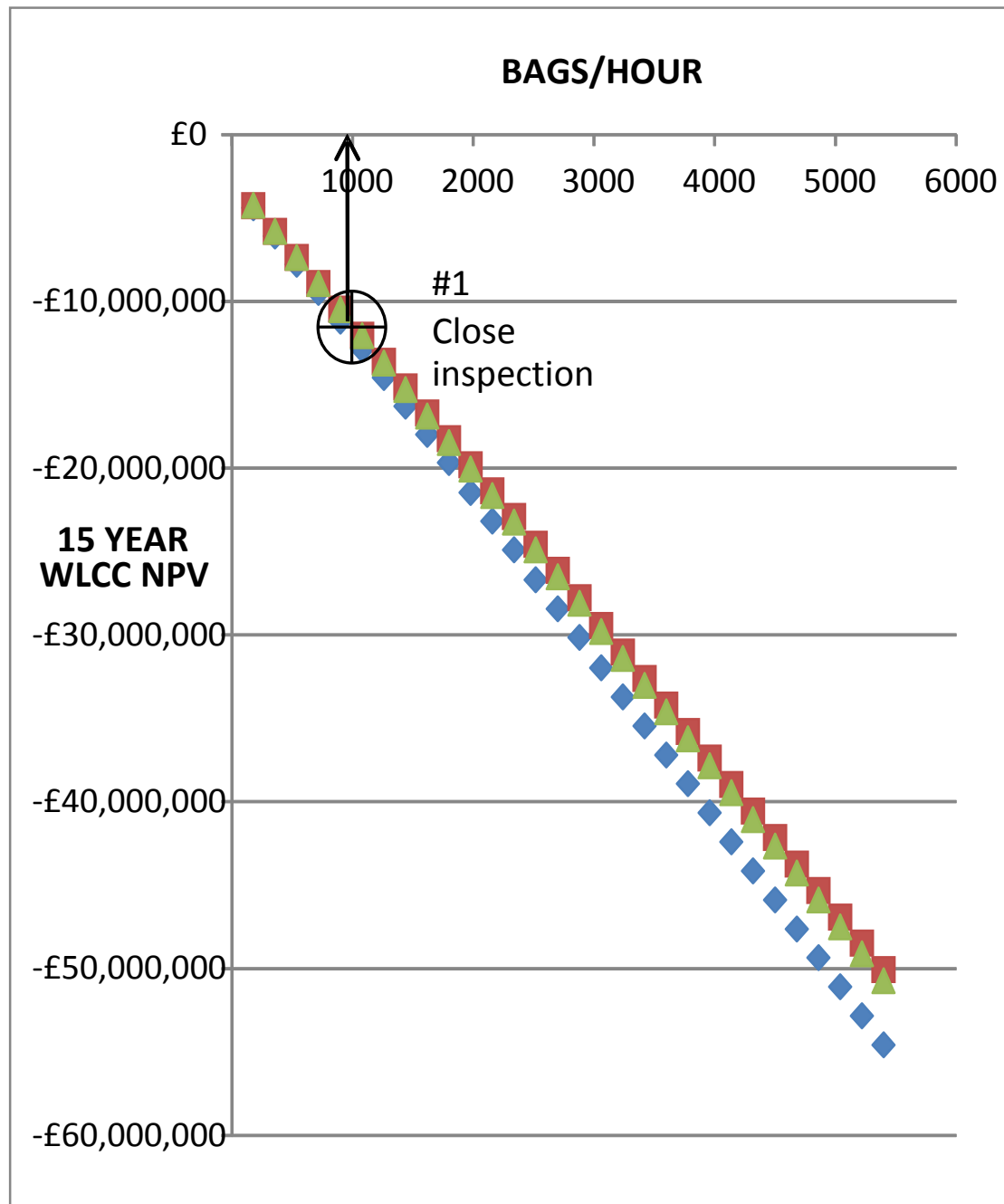
It can be seen that the fully automatic BHS solution is second cheapest, the semi-automatic BHS solution is the cheapest and the manual BHS solution is the most expensive from a WLCC NPV perspective.

Under base case input parameter conditions it can be seen from Figure 32, Figure 33, and Figure 34, that the semi-automated BHS is the cheapest solution. The processing of long haul baggage increases the WLCC NPV differential between manual and fully and semi-automated BHSs.

Figure 32: BASE reference mid range scenario: Short haul only⁶⁵

Key:

- ◆ Fully Automatic BHS
- Semi-Automatic BHS
- ▲ Manual BHS

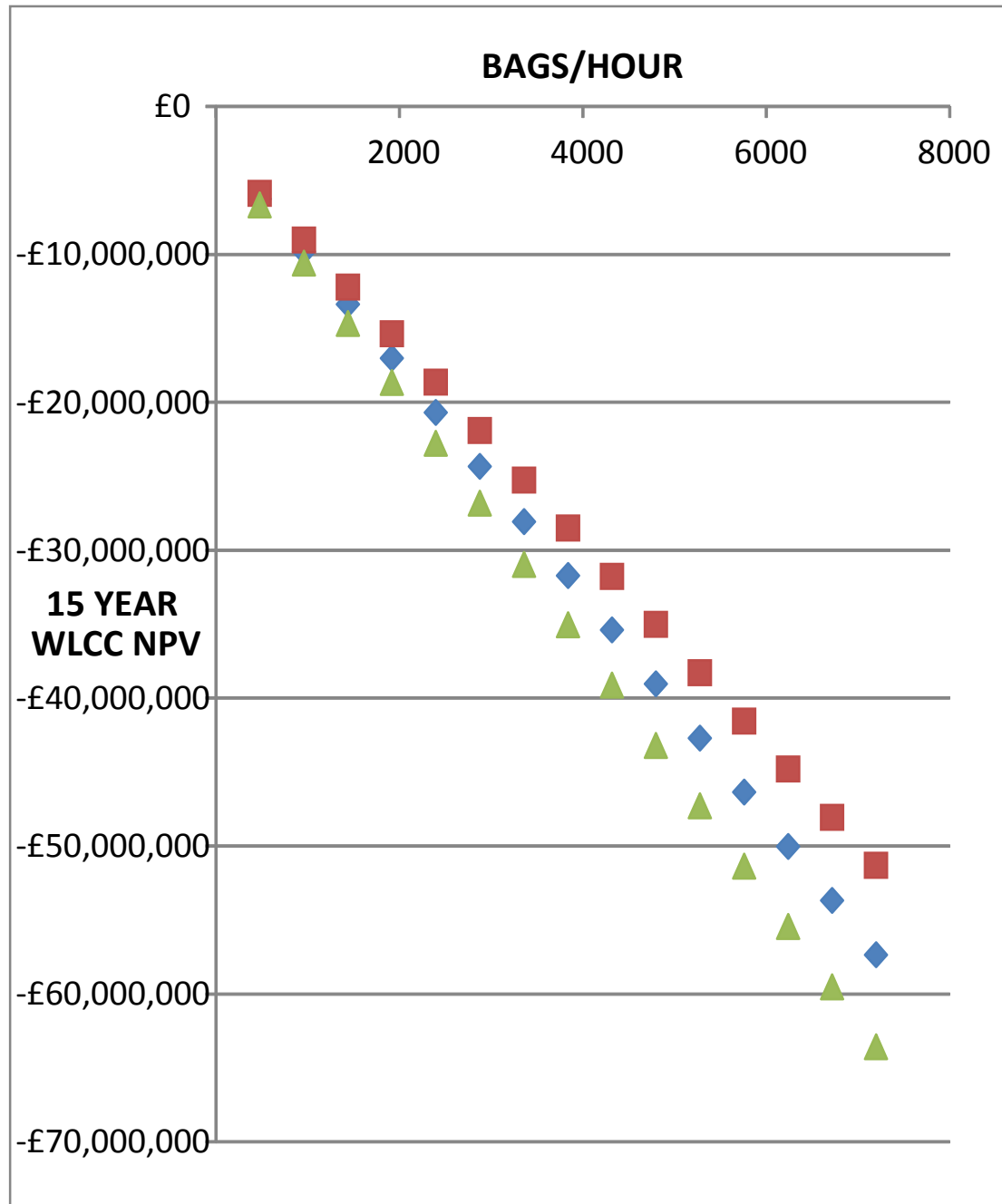


⁶⁵ This figure shows the WLCC NPV results using the following input parameters.
 59% CAPEX factor applied
 59% OPEX factor applied
 3% inflation applied
 2bags/min loading rate

Figure 33: BASE reference mid range scenario: Long haul only⁶⁶

Key:

- ◆ Fully Automatic BHS
- Semi-Automatic BHS
- ▲ Manual BHS

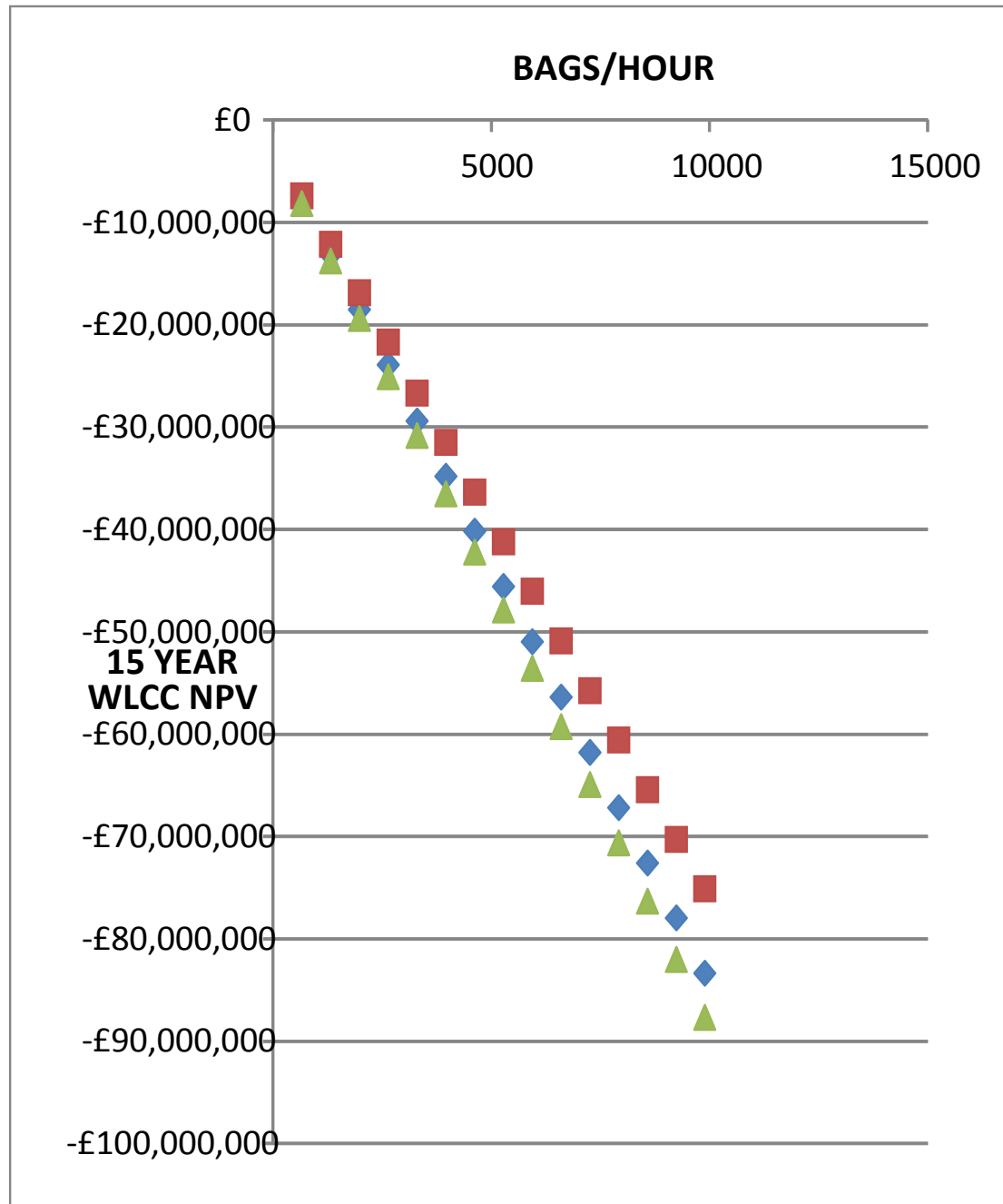


⁶⁶ This figure shows the WLCC NPV results using the following input parameters.
 59% CAPEX factor applied
 59% OPEX factor applied
 3% inflation applied
 2bags/min loading rate

Figure 34: BASE reference mid range scenario: Long / short haul mix⁶⁷

Key:

- ◆ Fully Automatic BHS
- Semi-Automatic BHS
- ▲ Manual BHS



⁶⁷ This figure shows the WLCC NPV results using the following input parameters.

59% CAPEX factor applied

59% OPEX factor applied

3% inflation applied

2bags/min loading rate

6.8 Sensitivity low CAPEX factor results

This section contains the results of the WLCC NPV experiments where the low CAPEX and OPEX factors have been applied.

6.8.1 Re: Short haul only

Figure 35 shows that with a low CAPEX factor the cost of the semi-automatic build equipment present with the semi-automated BHS can be recovered through OPEX savings of this equipment. With reference to the results seen in Appendix H it should be noted that manual BHS solution occupies significantly more baggage hall area than semi and the fully automated BHS solutions.

It can be seen that the fully automatic BHS solution is the most expensive, the semi-automatic BHS solution is the cheapest, and the manual BHS solution is the second cheapest from a WLCC NPV perspective.

6.8.2 Re: Long haul only

Figure 36 shows that when processing a long haul flight schedule only with a low CAPEX factor the cost of the semi-automatic build equipment present with the semi-automated BHS, and to a lesser extent the CAPEX of the fully automatic build equipment, can be recovered through OPEX savings of this equipment. With reference to the results seen in Appendix H it should be noted that manual BHS solution occupies significantly more baggage hall area than semi and the fully automated BHS solutions.

It can be seen that the fully automatic BHS solution is the second cheapest, the semi-automatic BHS solution is the cheapest, and the manual BHS solution is the most expensive from a WLCC NPV perspective.

6.8.3 Re: Long haul short haul mix

Figure 37 shows that when processing a long haul, and short haul mix flight schedule, with a low CAPEX factor the cost of the semi-automatic build equipment present with the semi-automated BHS, and to a lesser extent the CAPEX of the fully automatic build equipment, can be recovered through OPEX savings of this equipment. With reference to the results seen in Appendix H it should be noted that manual BHS solution occupies significantly more baggage hall area than semi and the fully automated BHS solutions.

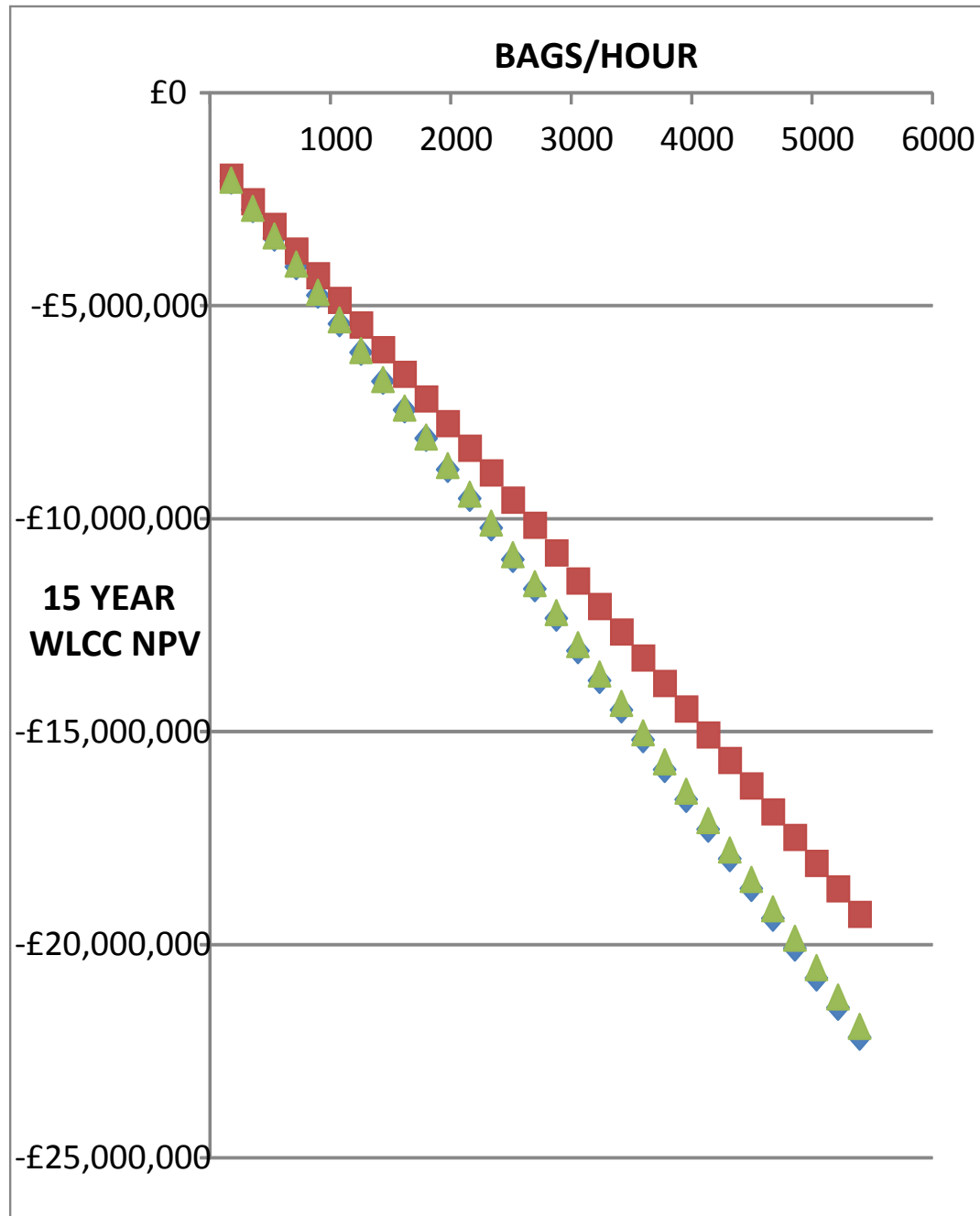
It can be seen that the fully automatic BHS solution is the second cheapest, the semi-automatic BHS solution is the cheapest, and the manual BHS solution is the most expensive from a WLCC NPV perspective. Under low CAPEX input parameter conditions it can be seen from Figure 35, Figure 36 and Figure 37 that the semi-automated BHS is always the cheapest solution.

The fully automated BHS solution, and the manual BHS solution switch ranking, in terms of coming second and third cheapest from a WLCC NPV perspective, dependent upon whether or not they process long haul flights. The processing of long haul baggage generally demotes the ranking of manual BHS solution with a low CAPEX factor.

Figure 35: Low CAPEX factor scenario: Short haul only⁶⁸

Key:

- ◆ Fully Automatic BHS
- Semi-Automatic BHS
- ▲ Manual BHS

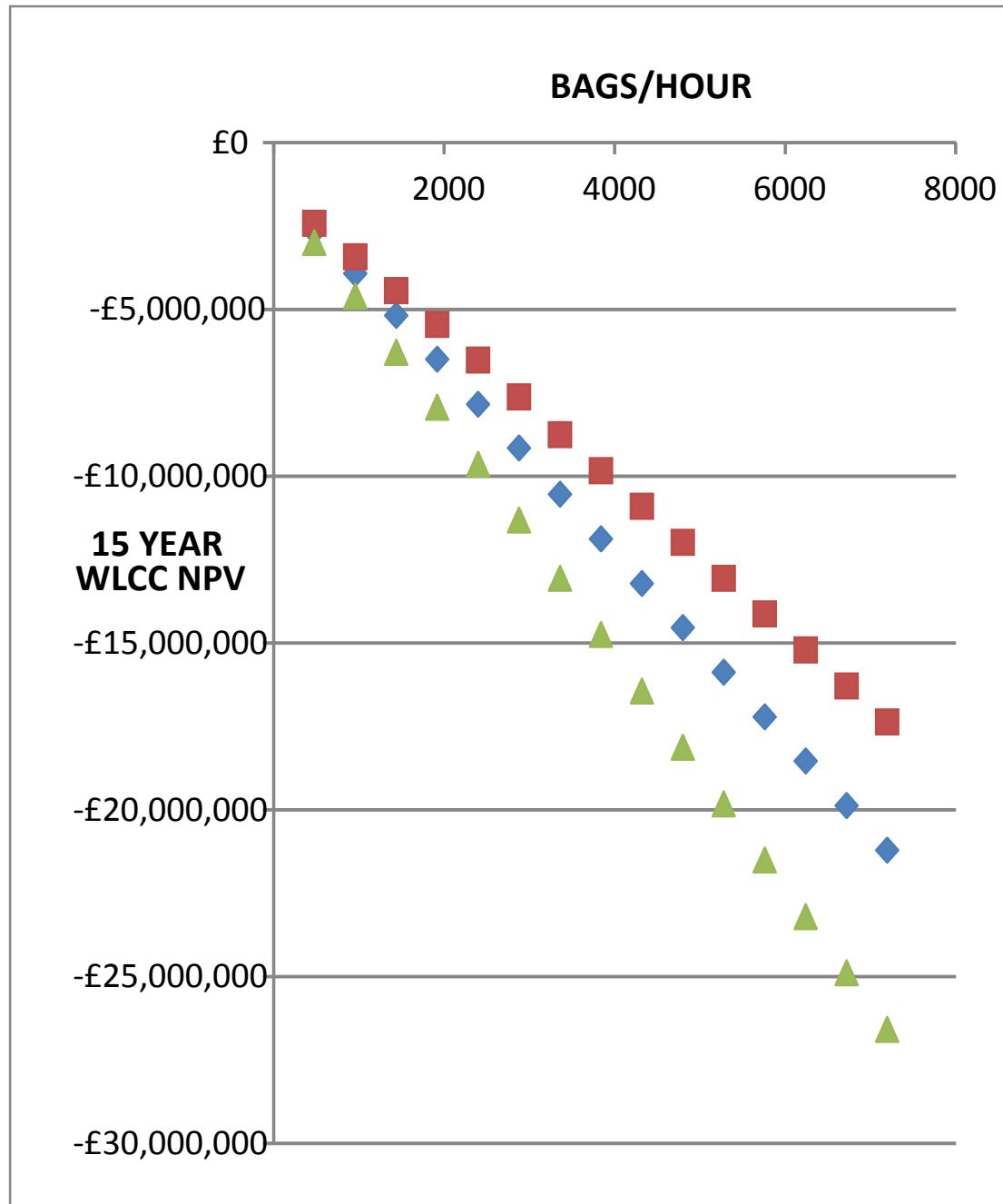


⁶⁸ This figure shows the WLCC NPV results using the following input parameters.
 19% CAPEX factor applied
 59% OPEX factor applied
 3% inflation applied
 2bags/min loading rate

Figure 36: Low CAPEX factor scenario: Long haul only⁶⁹

Key:

- ◆ Fully Automatic BHS
- Semi-Automatic BHS
- ▲ Manual BHS

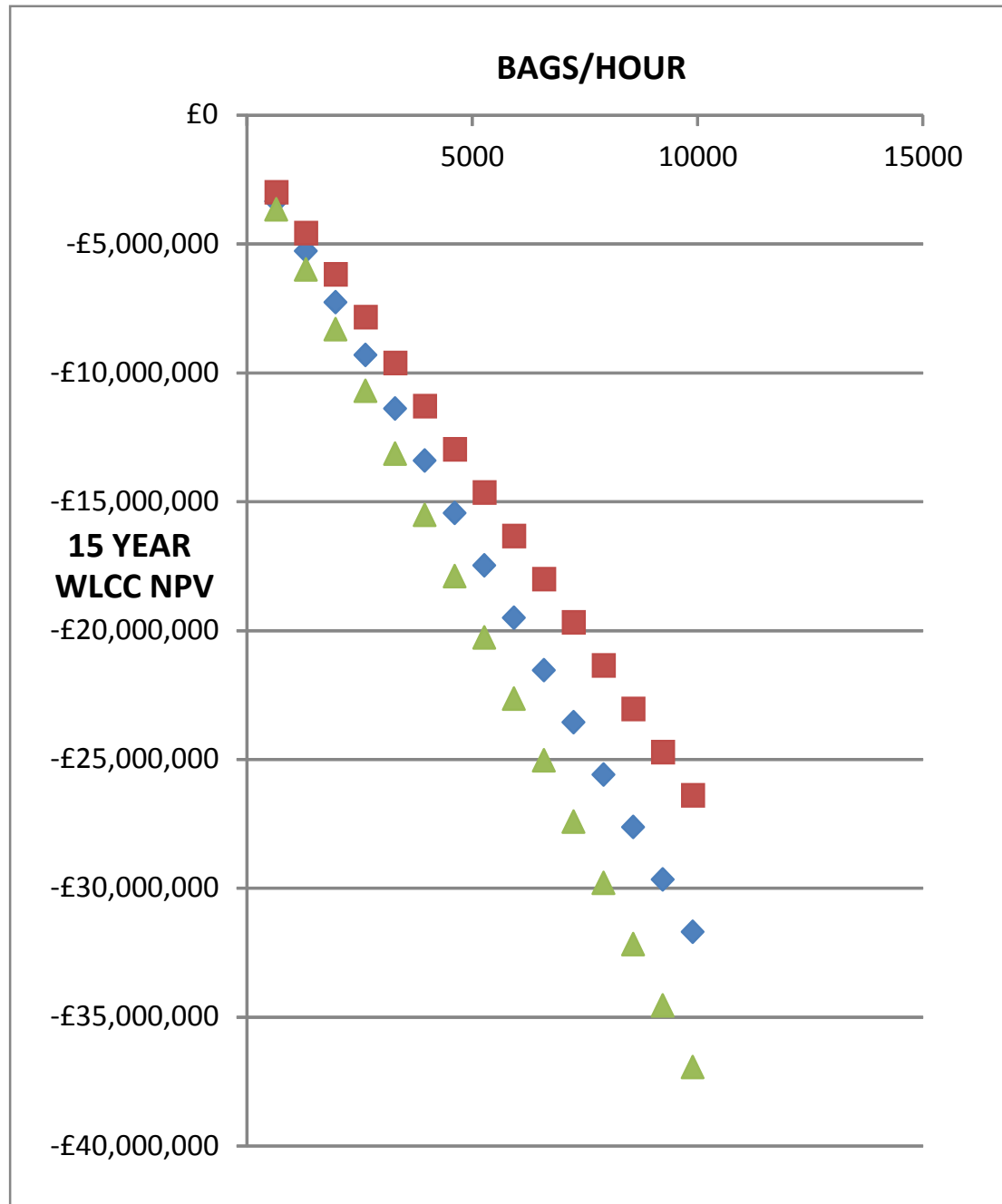


⁶⁹ This figure shows the WLCC NPV results using the following input parameters.
 19% CAPEX factor applied
 59% OPEX factor applied
 3% inflation applied
 2bags/min loading rate

Figure 37: Low CAPEX factor scenario: Long / short haul mix⁷⁰

Key:

- ◆ Fully Automatic BHS
- Semi-Automatic BHS
- ▲ Manual BHS



⁷⁰ This figure shows the WLCC NPV results using the following input parameters.
 19% CAPEX factor applied
 59% OPEX factor applied
 3% inflation applied
 2bags/min loading rate

6.9 Sensitivity high OPEX factor results

This section contains the results of the WLCC NPV experiments where the high OPEX factor has been applied.

6.9.1 Re: Short haul only

Figure 38 shows that when processing short haul flights only with the High OPEX factor applied this has no impact on the manual WLCC NPV when compared to the base factor results.

With reference to the results provided in Appendix H it can be seen that manual BHS solutions that process short haul occupy less area than the alternative BHS types, but require significantly more staff than the fully, and semi-automated BHS solutions.

It can be seen that the fully automatic BHS solution is the most expensive, the semi-automatic BHS solution is the cheapest, and the manual BHS solution is the second cheapest from a WLCC NPV perspective.

6.9.2 Re: Long haul only

It can be seen in Figure 39 that when processing long haul flights only, and with the high OPEX factor applied this has a negative impact upon the manual BHS WLCC NPV ranking. The semi-automated and fully automatic build lends itself to long haul processing and this promotes the ranking of both fully and semi-automated BHS from a WLCC NPV perspective.

It can be seen in the results provided in Appendix H that the manual BHS solutions occupy significantly more area, and require more staff, than fully and semi-automated BHSs.

It can be seen that the fully automatic BHS solution is the second cheapest, the semi-automatic BHS solution is the cheapest, and the manual BHS solution is the most expensive from a WLCC NPV perspective.

6.9.3 Re: Long haul short haul mix

Figure 40 shows that when processing both long haul and short flights with the high OPEX factor applied this has a negative impact (demotes its financial ranking) on the manual WLCC NPV.

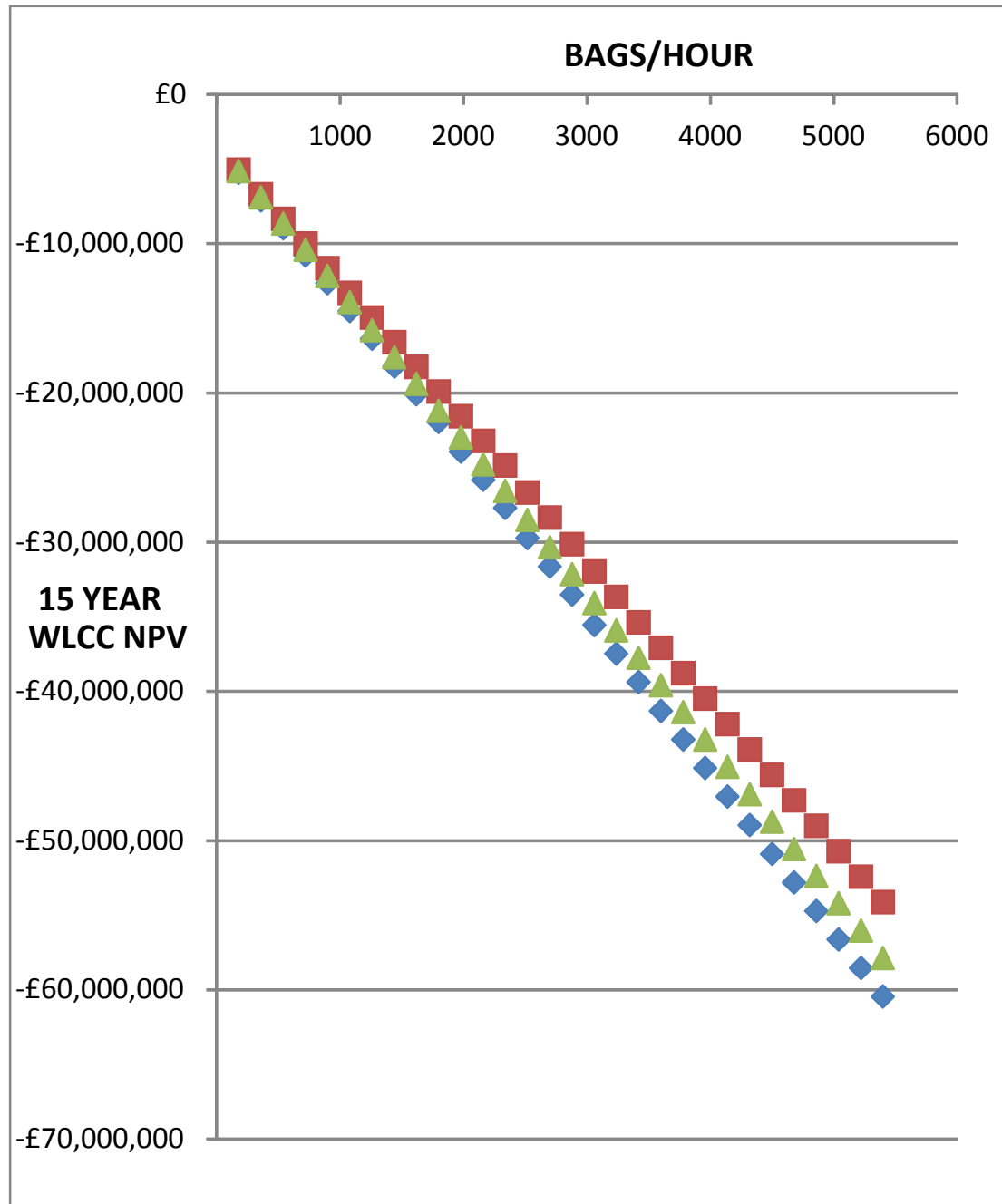
It can be seen that the fully automatic BHS solution is the second cheapest, the semi-automatic BHS solution is the cheapest, and the manual BHS solution is the most expensive from a WLCC NPV perspective.

When the high OPEX input factor is applied, the graphed results of Figure 38, Figure 39, and Figure 40 show that the semi-automated BHSs are always the cheapest solution from a WLCC NPV perspective. The financial ranking of manual BHS solutions gets demoted to third most cost effective when long haul flights are processed.

Figure 38: High OPEX factor scenario: Short haul only⁷¹

Key:

- ◆ Fully Automatic BHS
- Semi-Automatic BHS
- ▲ Manual BHS

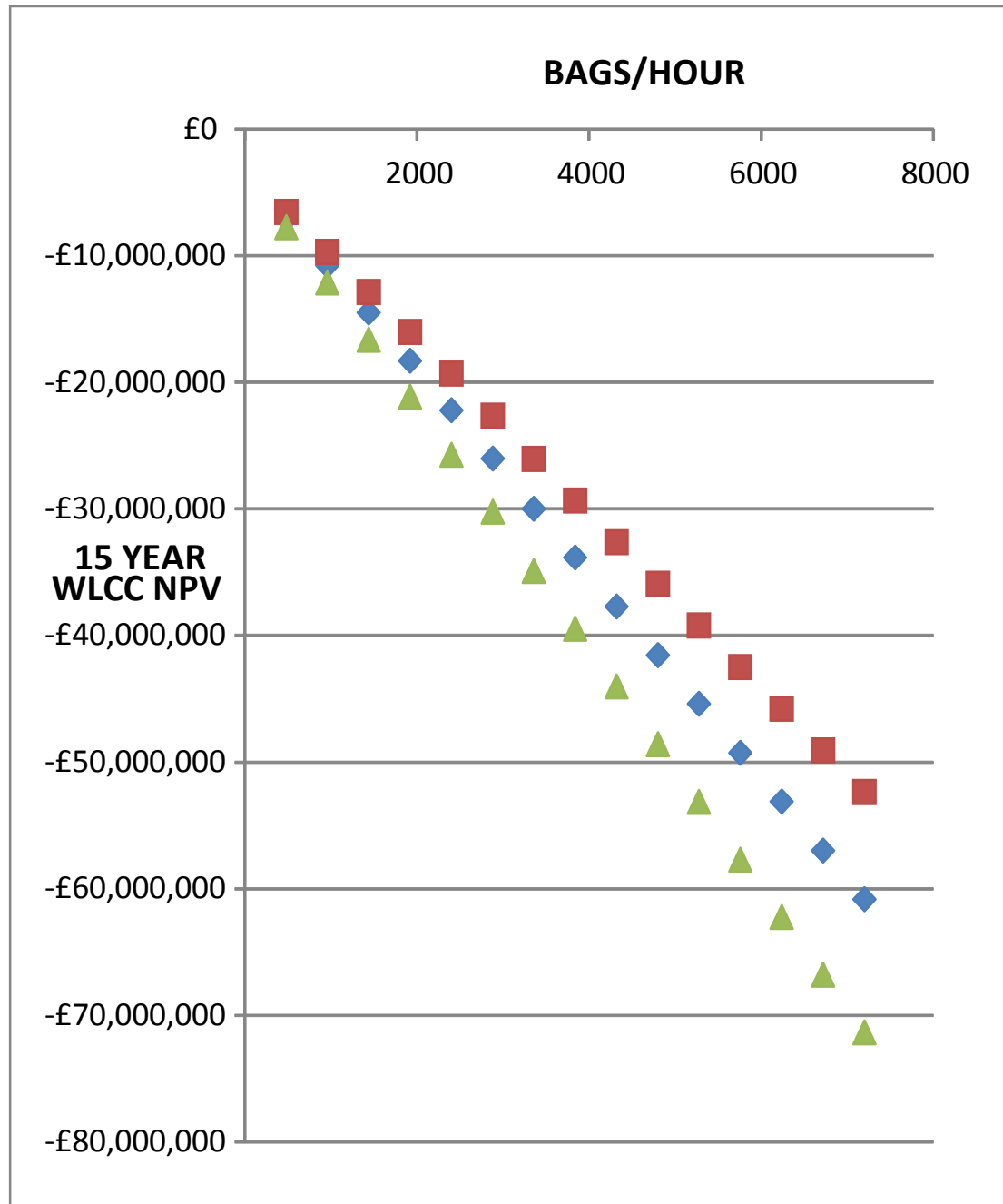


⁷¹ This figure shows the WLCC NPV results using the following input parameters.
 59% CAPEX factor applied
 110% OPEX factor applied
 3% inflation applied
 2bags/min loading rate

Figure 39: High OPEX factor scenario: Long haul only⁷²

Key:

- ◆ Fully Automatic BHS
- Semi-Automatic BHS
- ▲ Manual BHS

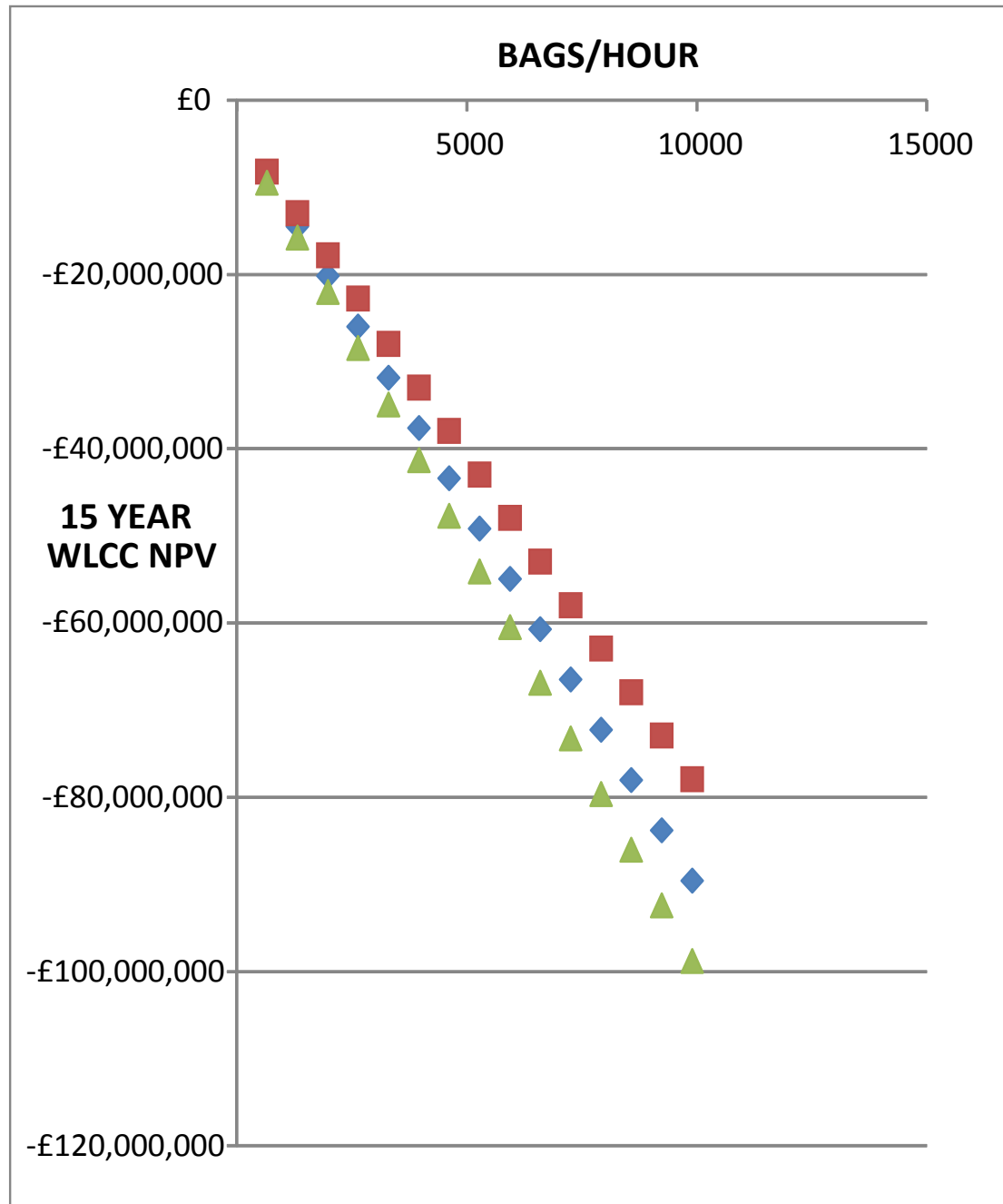


⁷² This figure shows the WLCC NPV results using the following input parameters.
 59% CAPEX factor applied
 110% OPEX factor applied
 3% inflation applied
 2bags/min loading rate

Figure 40: High OPEX factor scenario: Long / short haul mix⁷³

Key:

- ◆ Fully Automatic BHS
- Semi-Automatic BHS
- ▲ Manual BHS



⁷³ This figure shows the WLCC NPV results using the following input parameters.
 59% CAPEX factor applied
 110% OPEX factor applied
 3% inflation applied
 2bags/min loading rate

6.10 Sensitivity low OPEX factor results

This section contains the results of the WLCC NPV experiments where the low OPEX factor has been applied.

6.10.1 Re: Short haul only

It can be seen from Figure 41 that when short haul traffic is processed by the three types of BHS solution, with a low OPEX factor applied, this has a significant positive affect on the WLCC NPV financial ranking of the manual BHS solution.

It can be seen that the fully automatic BHS solution is the most expensive, the semi-automatic BHS solution is the second cheapest, and the manual BHS solution is the cheapest from a WLCC NPV perspective.

6.10.2 Re: Long haul only

Figure 42 shows that when long haul traffic is processed, with a low OPEX factor applied, this has a major impact on the manual WLCC NPV financial ranking. It demotes its financial ranking from first place to third place when compared to the results seen in Figure 41.

It can be seen that the fully automatic BHS solution is the second cheapest, the semi-automatic BHS solution is the cheapest, and the manual BHS solution is the most expensive from a WLCC NPV perspective.

6.10.3 Re: Long haul short haul mix

It should be noted from Figure 43 that when combined short haul and long haul traffic are processed with a low OPEX factor applied, this significantly changes the financial ranking of the manual BHS. This is due to the cost reduction affect associated within the staff costs which are comparatively greater with this BHS solution.

It can be seen that the fully automatic BHS solution is the second cheapest, the semi-automatic BHS solution is the cheapest, and the manual BHS solution is the most expensive from a WLCC NPV perspective.

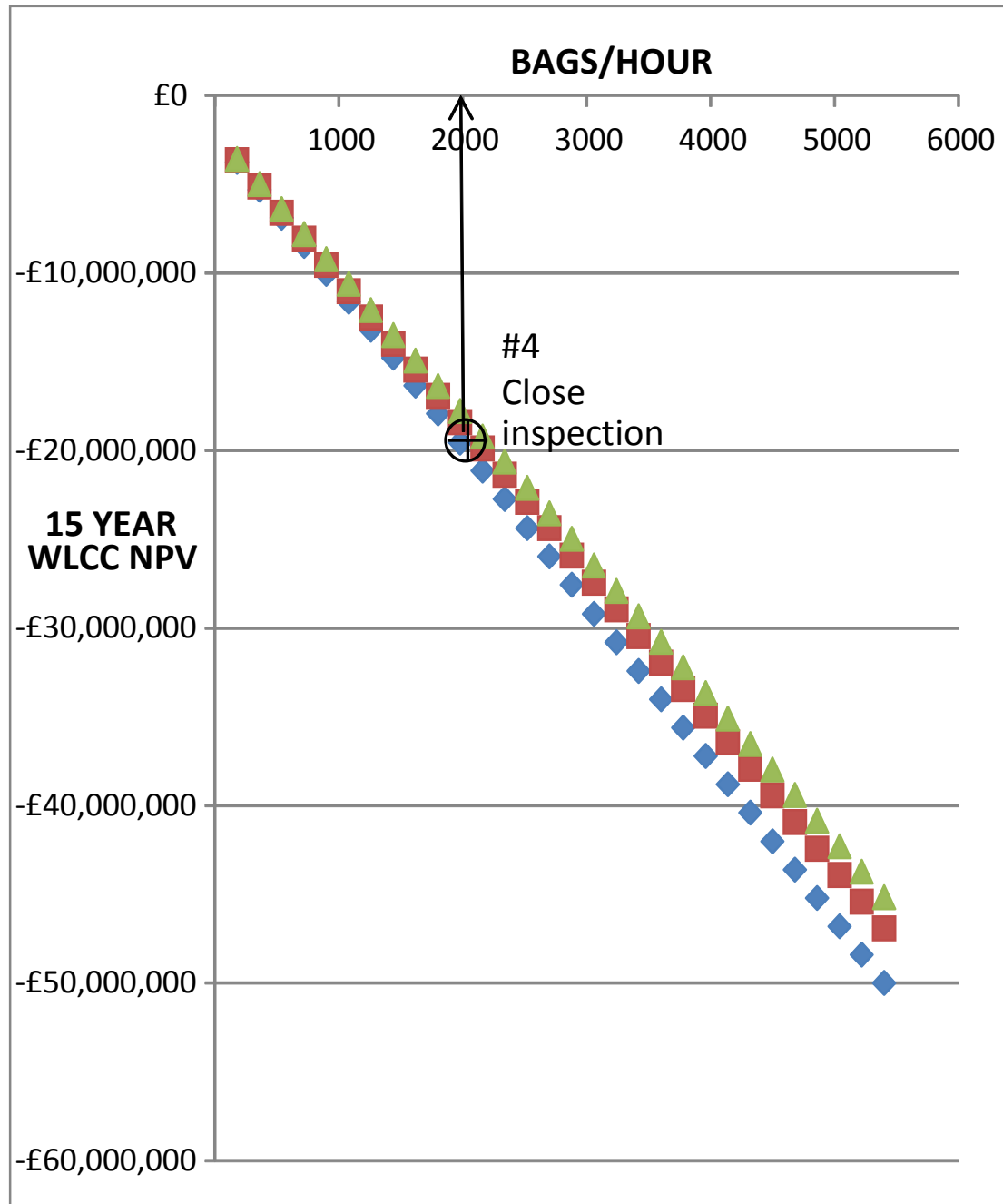
When the low OPEX input factor is applied, the graphed results of Figure 41, Figure 42, and Figure 43 show that when processing either (i) long haul traffic or (ii) short haul / long haul mixed traffic the semi-automated BHSs are the cheapest solution from a WLCC NPV perspective.

The financial ranking of the manual BHS solutions gets significantly promoted to first place when only short haul traffic is processed.

Figure 41: Low OPEX factor scenario: short haul only⁷⁴

Key:

- ◆ Fully Automatic BHS
- Semi-Automatic BHS
- ▲ Manual BHS

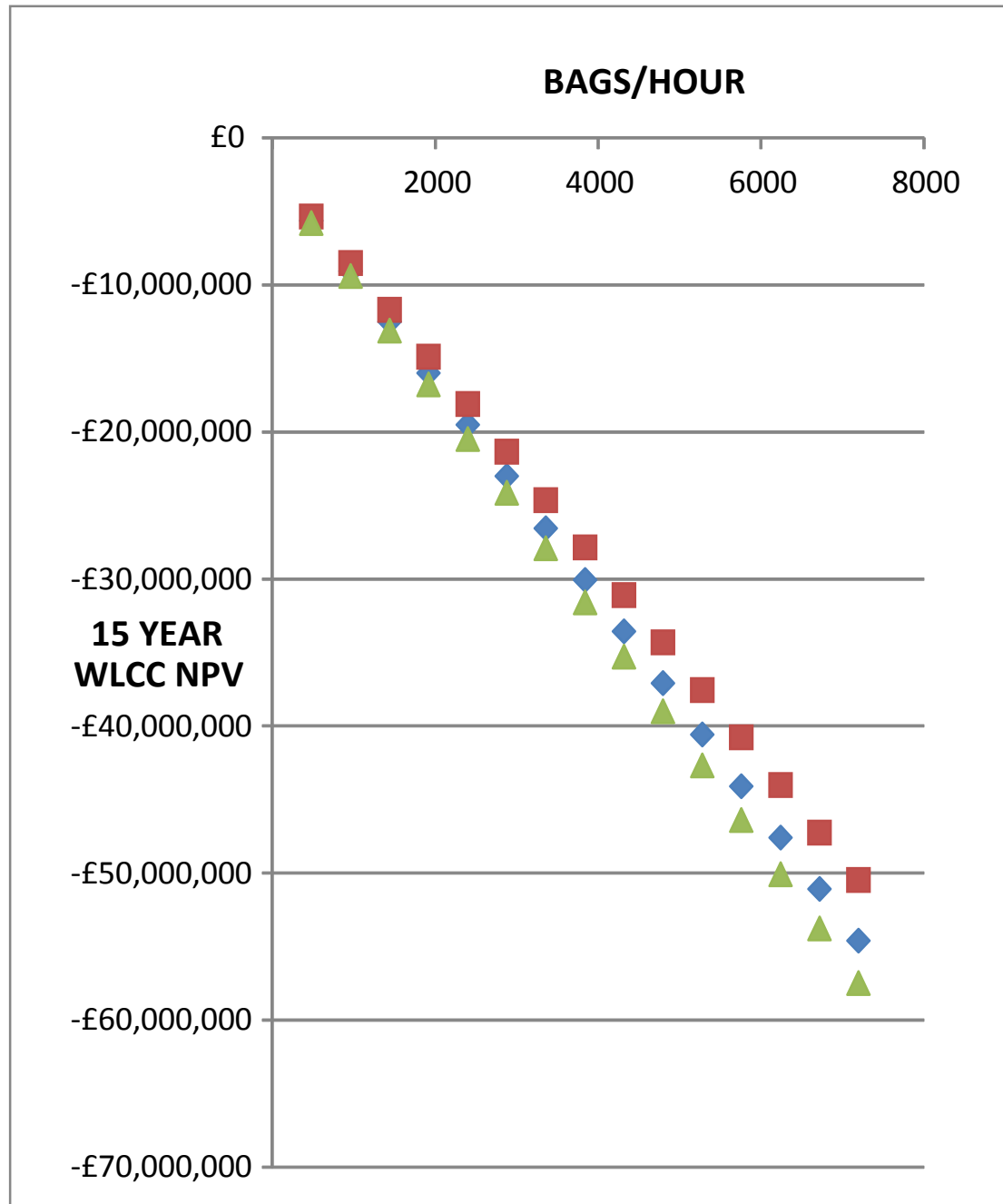


⁷⁴ This figure shows the WLCC NPV results using the following input parameters.
 59% CAPEX factor applied
 19% OPEX factor applied
 3% inflation applied
 2bags/min loading rate

Figure 42: Low OPEX factor scenario: Long haul only⁷⁵

Key:

- ◆ Fully Automatic BHS
- Semi-Automatic BHS
- ▲ Manual BHS

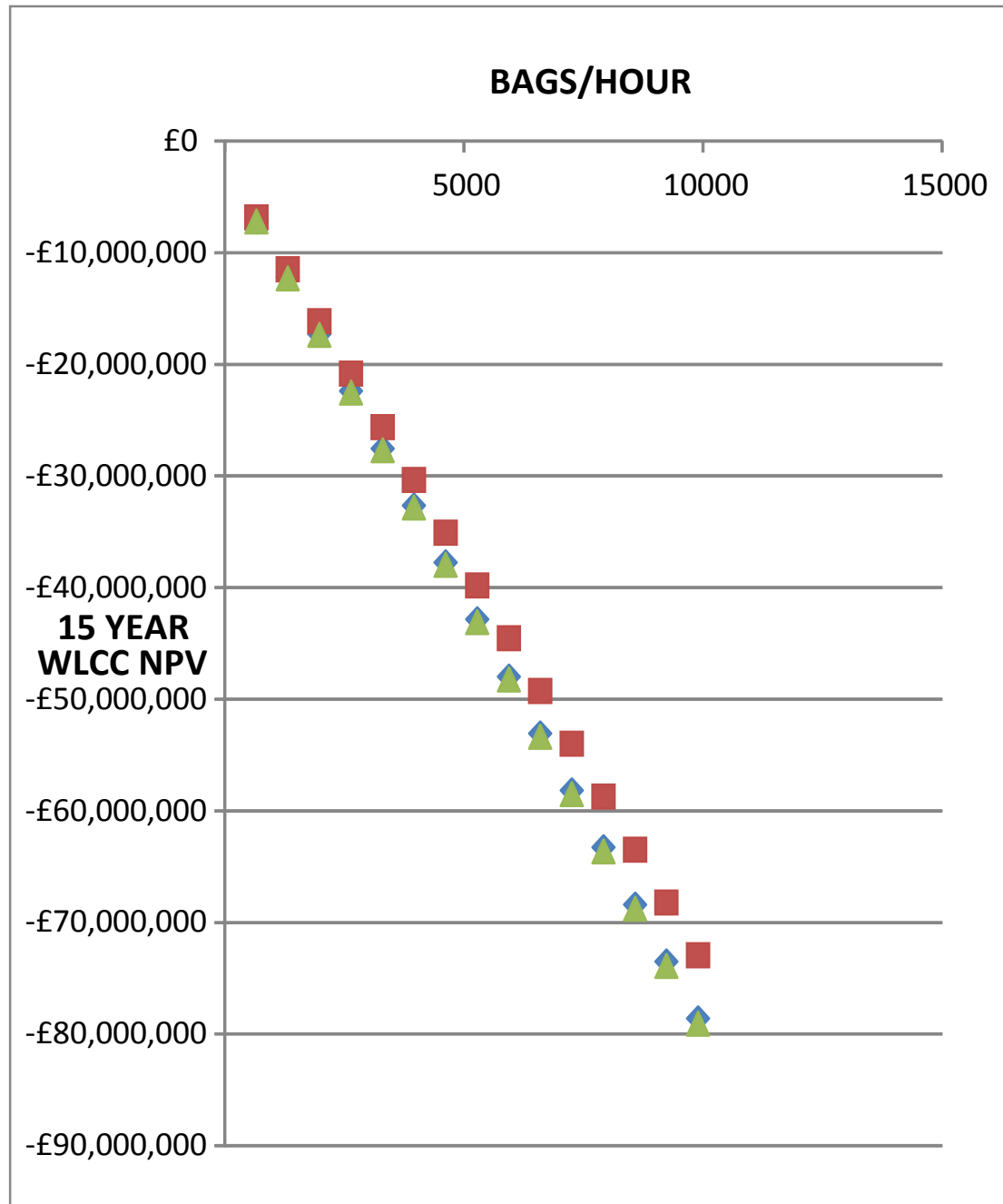


⁷⁵ This figure shows the WLCC NPV results using the following input parameters.
 59% CAPEX factor applied
 19% OPEX factor applied
 3% inflation applied
 2bags/min loading rate

Figure 43: Low OPEX factor scenario: Long haul short haul mix⁷⁶

Key:

- ◆ Fully Automatic BHS
- Semi-Automatic BHS
- ▲ Manual BHS



⁷⁶ This figure shows the WLCC NPV results using the following input parameters.
 59% CAPEX factor applied
 19% OPEX factor applied
 3% inflation applied
 2bags/min loading rate

6.11 Sensitivity high inflation rate results

This section contains the results of the WLCC NPV experiments where the high inflation factor has been applied.

6.11.1 Re: Short haul only

Figure 44 shows that when processing short haul traffic only with a high inflation factor applied to the financial assessment the WLCC NPV ranking of the manual BHS solution gets promoted to second cheapest.

It can be seen that the fully automatic BHS solution is the most expensive, the semi-automatic BHS solution is the cheapest, and the manual BHS solution is the second cheapest from a WLCC NPV perspective.

6.11.2 Re: Long haul only

With reference to Figure 45 it can be seen that when processing long haul traffic, and when the high inflation factor is applied the semi-automatic BHS solutions maintain their first place WLCC NPV financial ranking.

It can be seen that the fully automatic BHS solution is the second cheapest, the semi-automatic BHS solution is the cheapest, and the manual BHS solution is the most expensive from a WLCC NPV perspective.

6.11.3 Re: Long haul short haul mix

Figure 46 shows that when processing both short haul and long haul traffic, and when the high inflation factor is applied the semi-automatic BHS solutions again maintain their first place WLCC NPV financial ranking.

It can be seen that the fully automatic BHS solution is the second cheapest, the semi-automatic BHS solution is the cheapest, and the manual BHS solution is the most expensive from a WLCC NPV perspective.

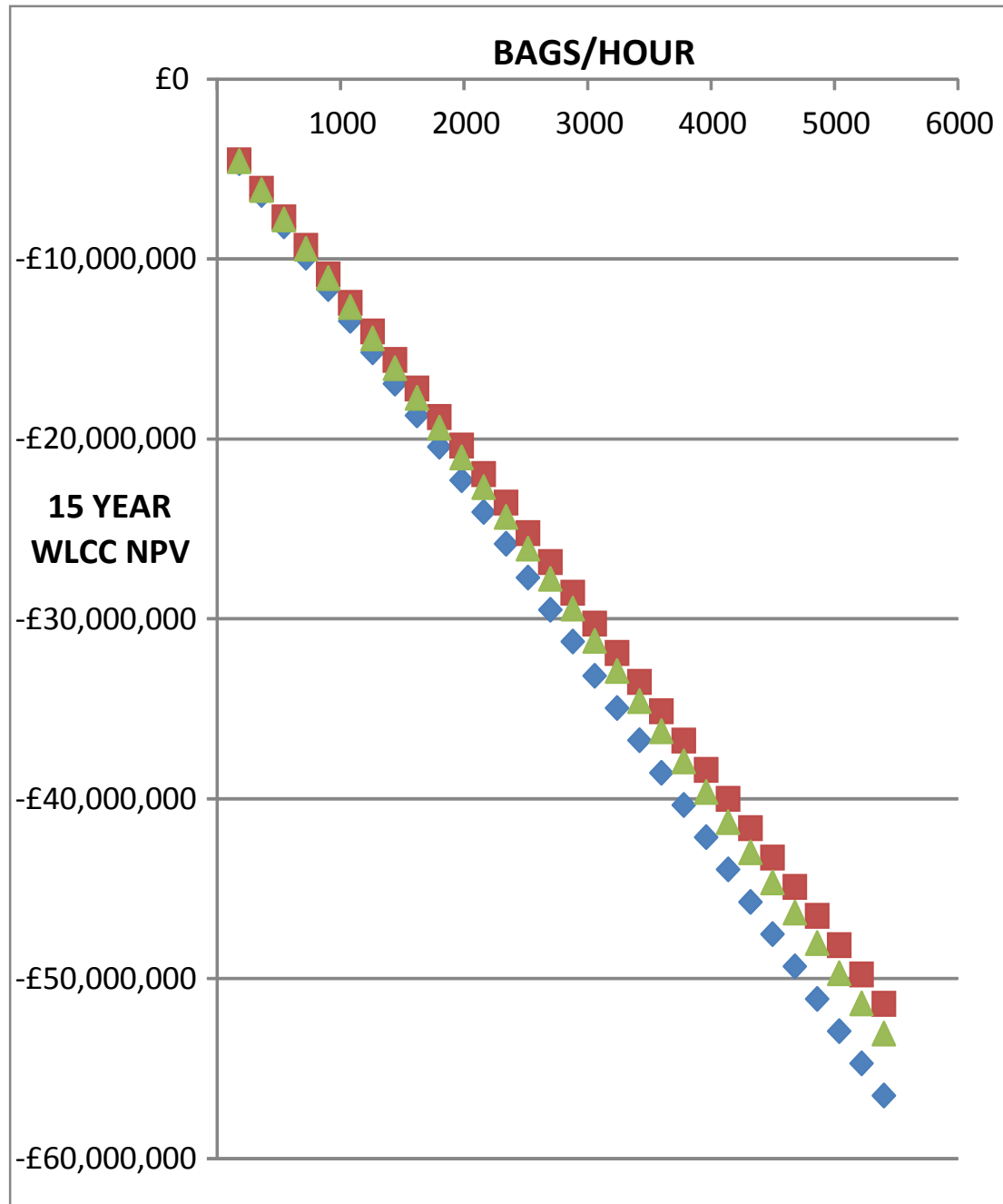
When the high inflation input factor is applied, the graphed results of Figure 44, Figure 45, and Figure 46 show that when processing either: (i) short haul, (ii) long haul traffic, or (iii) short haul / long haul mixed traffic the semi-automated BHSs are the cheapest solution from a WLCC NPV perspective.

The financial ranking of the manual BHS solutions gets promoted to second place when only short haul traffic is processed.

Figure 44: High inflation rate scenario: Short haul only⁷⁷

Key:

- ◆ Fully Automatic BHS
- Semi-Automatic BHS
- ▲ Manual BHS

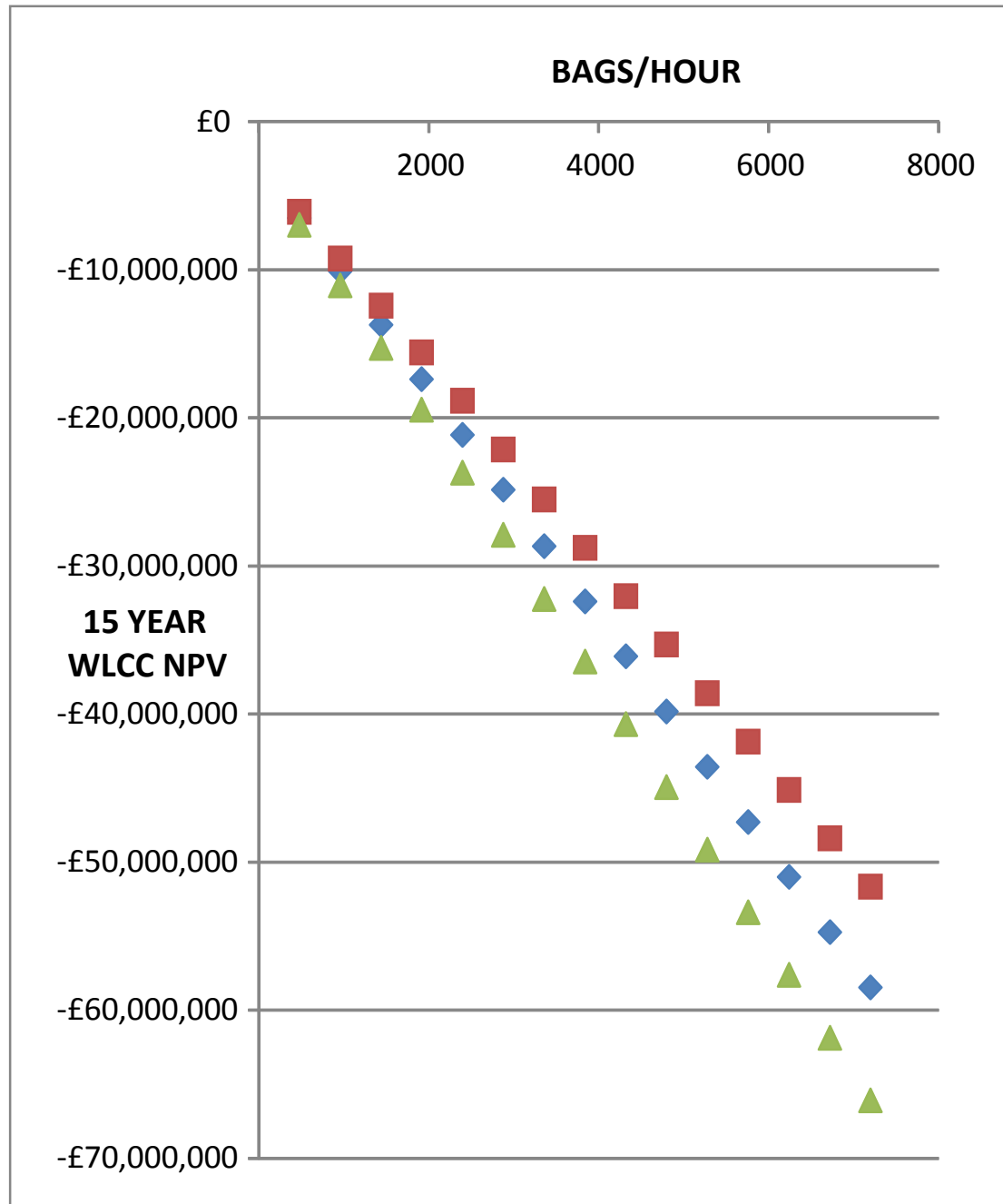


⁷⁷ This figure shows the WLCC NPV results using the following input parameters.
 59% CAPEX factor applied
 59% OPEX factor applied
 7% inflation applied
 2bags/min loading rate

Figure 45: High inflation rate scenario: Long haul only⁷⁸

Key:

- ◆ Fully Automatic BHS
- Semi-Automatic BHS
- ▲ Manual BHS

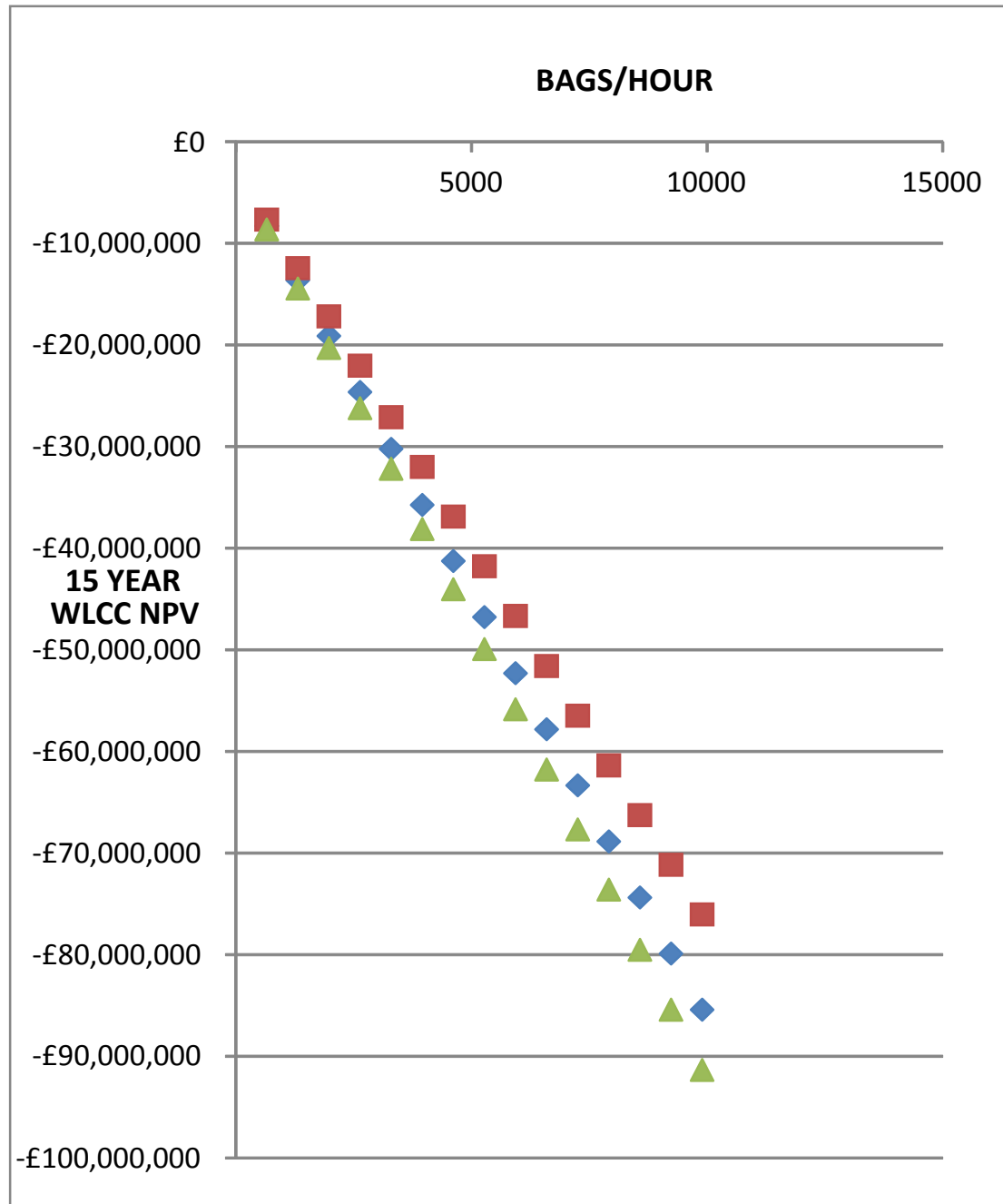


⁷⁸ This figure shows the WLCC NPV results using the following input parameters.
 59% CAPEX factor applied
 59% OPEX factor applied
 7% inflation applied
 2bags/min loading rate

Figure 46: High inflation rate scenario: Short haul / long haul mix⁷⁹

Key:

- ◆ Fully Automatic BHS
- Semi-Automatic BHS
- ▲ Manual BHS



⁷⁹ This figure shows the WLCC NPV results using the following input parameters.
 59% CAPEX factor applied
 59% OPEX factor applied
 7% inflation applied
 2bags/min loading rate

6.12 Sensitivity low inflation rate results

This section contains the results of the WLCC NPV experiments where the low inflation factor has been applied.

6.12.1 Re: Short haul only

Figure 47 shows that when processing short haul traffic only, and when the low inflation factor has been applied, the manual BHS solutions predominantly maintain their position as the second cheapest BHS as per the reference base condition seen in Figure 32. When the low inflation factor is applied to BHSs processing upto 1080 bags per hour of short haul traffic the manual BHS solutions are ranked cheapest.

It can be seen that the fully automatic BHS solution is the most expensive, the semi-automatic BHS solution is the cheapest, and the manual BHS solution is the second cheapest from a WLCC NPV perspective. In this scenario the low inflation rate reduces the WLCC NPV cost of the additional staff that must be present with the more staff intensive manual BHS solutions.

6.12.2 Re: Long haul only

With respect to Figure 48 it can be seen that, when the low inflation factor is applied to BHSs processing only long haul traffic, the ranking of the fully automated BHSs, semi-automated BHS, and manual BHSs are unchanged when compared to the base condition seen in Figure 33.

It can be seen that the fully automatic BHS solution is the second cheapest, the semi-automatic BHS solution is the cheapest, and the manual BHS solution is the most expensive from a WLCC NPV perspective.

6.12.3 Re: Long haul short haul mix

It can be seen in Figure 49 that when the low inflation factor is applied to the BHSs processing both short haul, long haul, and long haul traffic this has no impact when compared to the WLCC NPV base case rankings denoted in Figure 34.

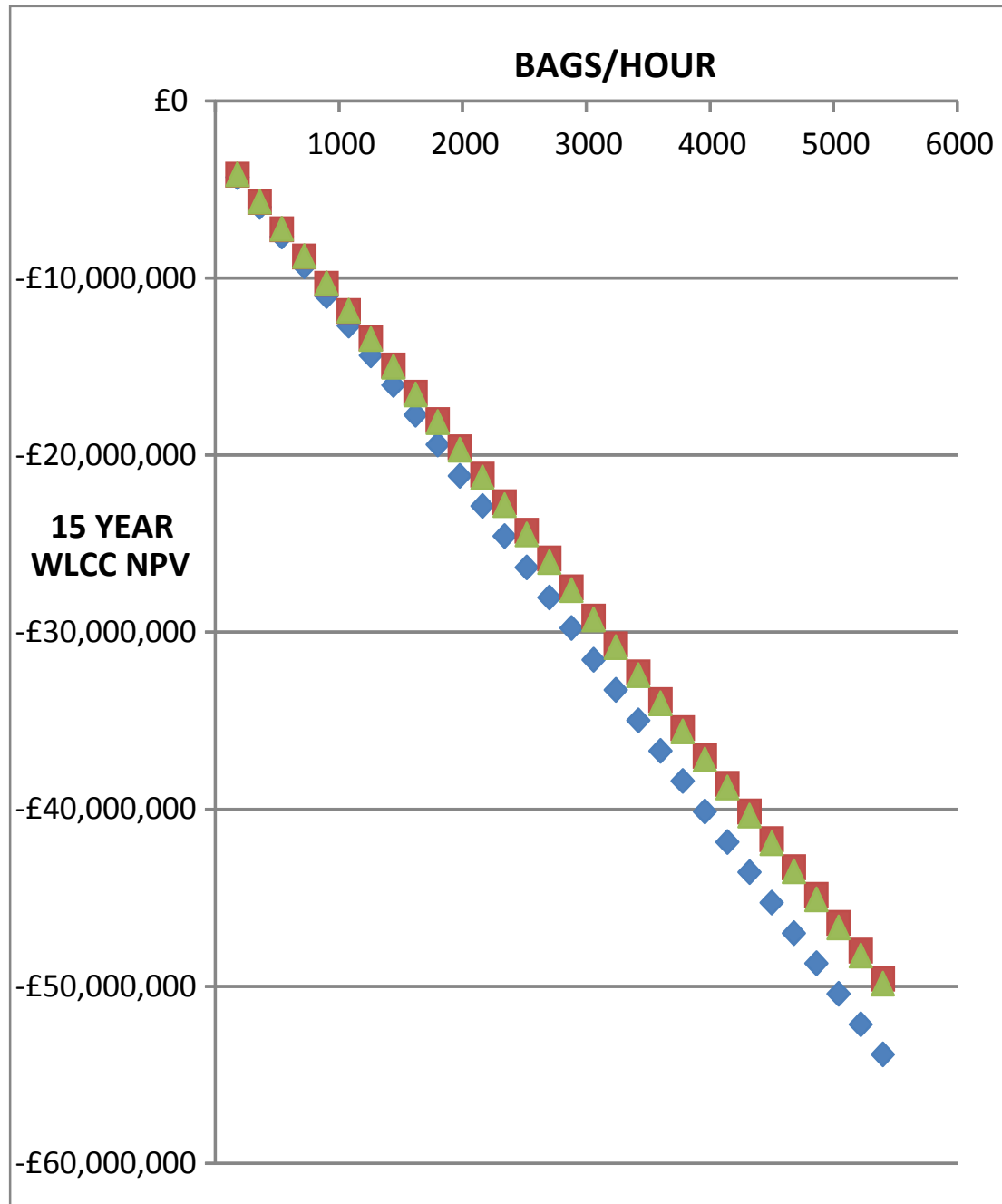
It can be seen that the fully automatic BHS solution is the second cheapest, the semi-automatic BHS solution is the cheapest, and the manual BHS solution is the most expensive from a WLCC NPV perspective.

When the low inflation input factor is applied, the graphed results of Figure 47, Figure 48, and Figure 49, shows that when processing either (i) short haul, (ii) long haul or, (iii) short haul / long haul mixed traffic, the semi-automated BHSs are generally and predominantly the cheapest solution from a WLCC NPV perspective.

Figure 47: Low inflation rate scenario: Short haul only⁸⁰

Key:

- ◆ Fully Automatic BHS
- Semi-Automatic BHS
- ▲ Manual BHS

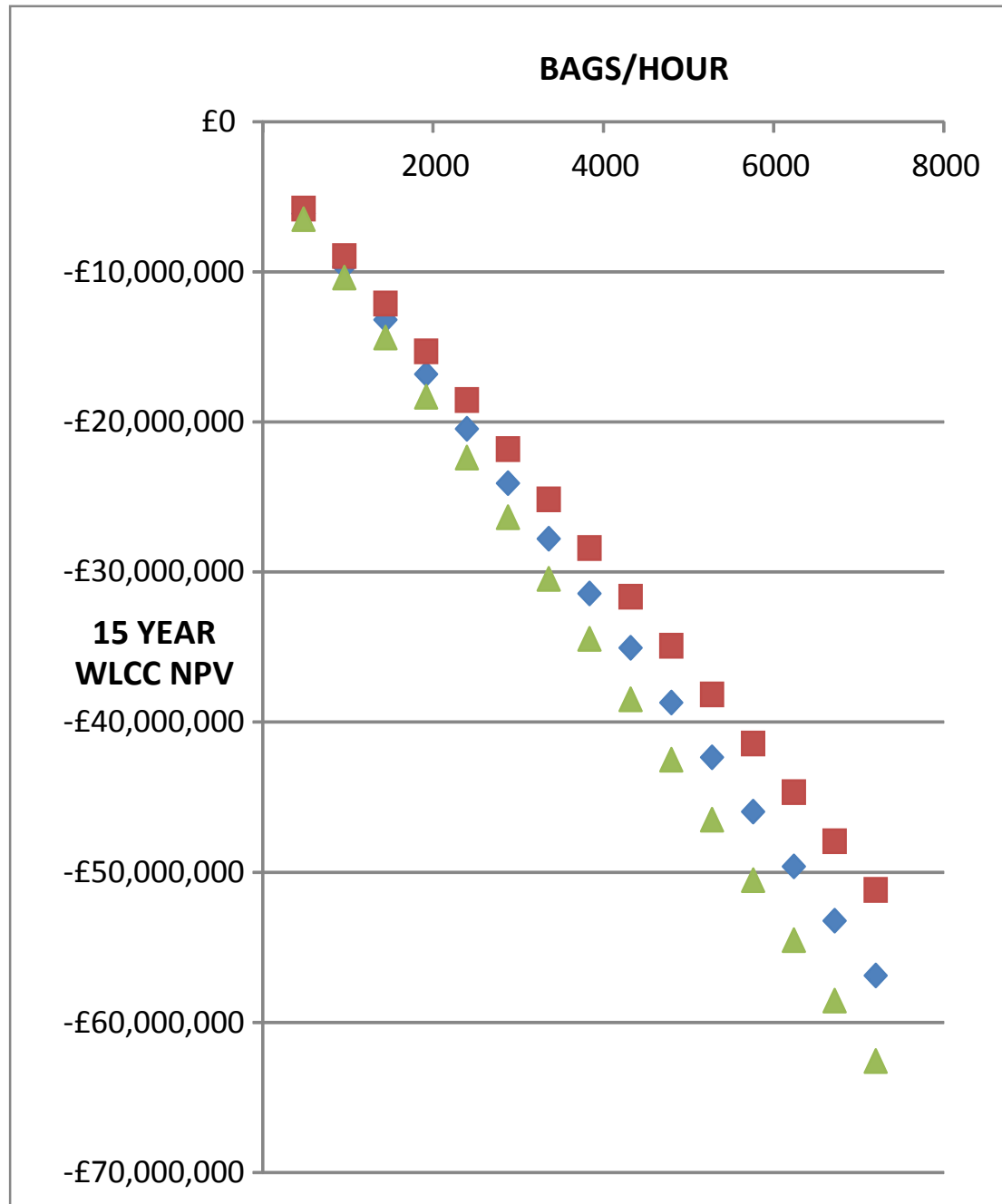


⁸⁰ This figure shows the WLCC NPV results using the following input parameters.
 59% CAPEX factor applied
 59% OPEX factor applied
 1% inflation applied
 2bags/min loading rate

Figure 48: Low inflation rate scenario: Long haul only⁸¹

Key:

- ◆ Fully Automatic BHS
- Semi-Automatic BHS
- ▲ Manual BHS

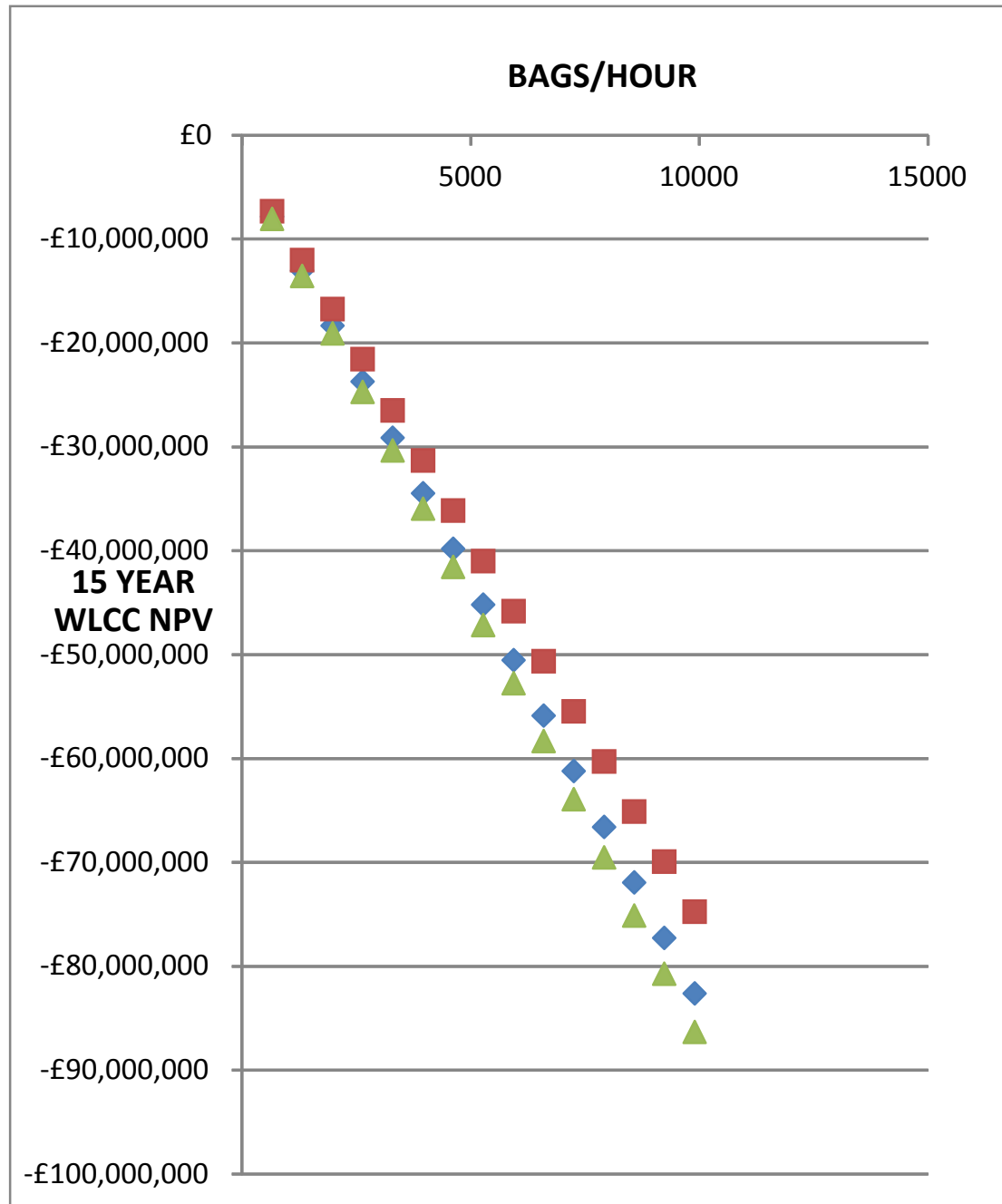


⁸¹ This figure shows the WLCC NPV results using the following input parameters.
 59% CAPEX factor applied
 59% OPEX factor applied
 1% inflation applied
 2bags/min loading rate

Figure 49: Low inflation rate scenario: Short haul / Long haul mix⁸²

Key:

- ◆ Fully Automatic BHS
- Semi-Automatic BHS
- ▲ Manual BHS



⁸² This figure shows the WLCC NPV results using the following input parameters.
 59% CAPEX factor applied
 59% OPEX factor applied
 1% inflation applied
 2bags/min loading rate

6.13 Sensitivity high staff loading rate bags/min results

This section contains the results of the WLCC NPV experiments where the high staff loading factor has been applied.

6.13.1 Re: Short haul only

Figure 50 shows that when the high staff loading rate is applied to the model processing short haul traffic only, the resultant BHSs that are produced witness WLCC NPV financial rankings that are different to the base reference point conditions seen in Figure 32. The difference being that in the base case the semi-automatic BHSs are ranked first and the manual BHSs are ranked second. When the high staff loading rate is applied to the short haul traffic scenario this has a positive effect upon the ranking of the manual BHS whereby its WLCC NPV ranking gets promoted to first place. Whilst the change in loading rate is a small numerical variance, from 2bags/minute/operator to 3bags/minute/operator (a 50% increase) the reduction in WLCC NPV that results is very considerable.

It can be seen that the fully automatic BHS solution is the most expensive, the semi-automatic BHS solution is the second cheapest, and the manual BHS solution is the least expensive from a WLCC NPV perspective. The high loading rate has the effect of reducing staff costs which in turn promotes manual BHS WLCC NPV ranking.

6.13.2 Re: Long haul only

With respect to Figure 51 it shows that when the high staff loading rate factor is applied to BHSs processing long haul traffic only, this has no impact on the

commercial WLCC NPV rankings of the fully automatic, semi-automatic and manual BHS solutions when compared to the base reference conditions seen in Figure 33.

It can be seen that the fully automatic BHS solution is the second cheapest, the semi-automatic BHS solution is the cheapest, and the manual BHS solution is the most expensive from a WLCC NPV perspective.

6.13.3 Re: Long haul short haul mix

Figure 52 shows that when the high staff loading rate is applied to BHSs processing a combination of short haul, and long haul traffic this has no impact on the commercial WLCC NPV rankings of the BHS solutions when compared to the base reference conditions.

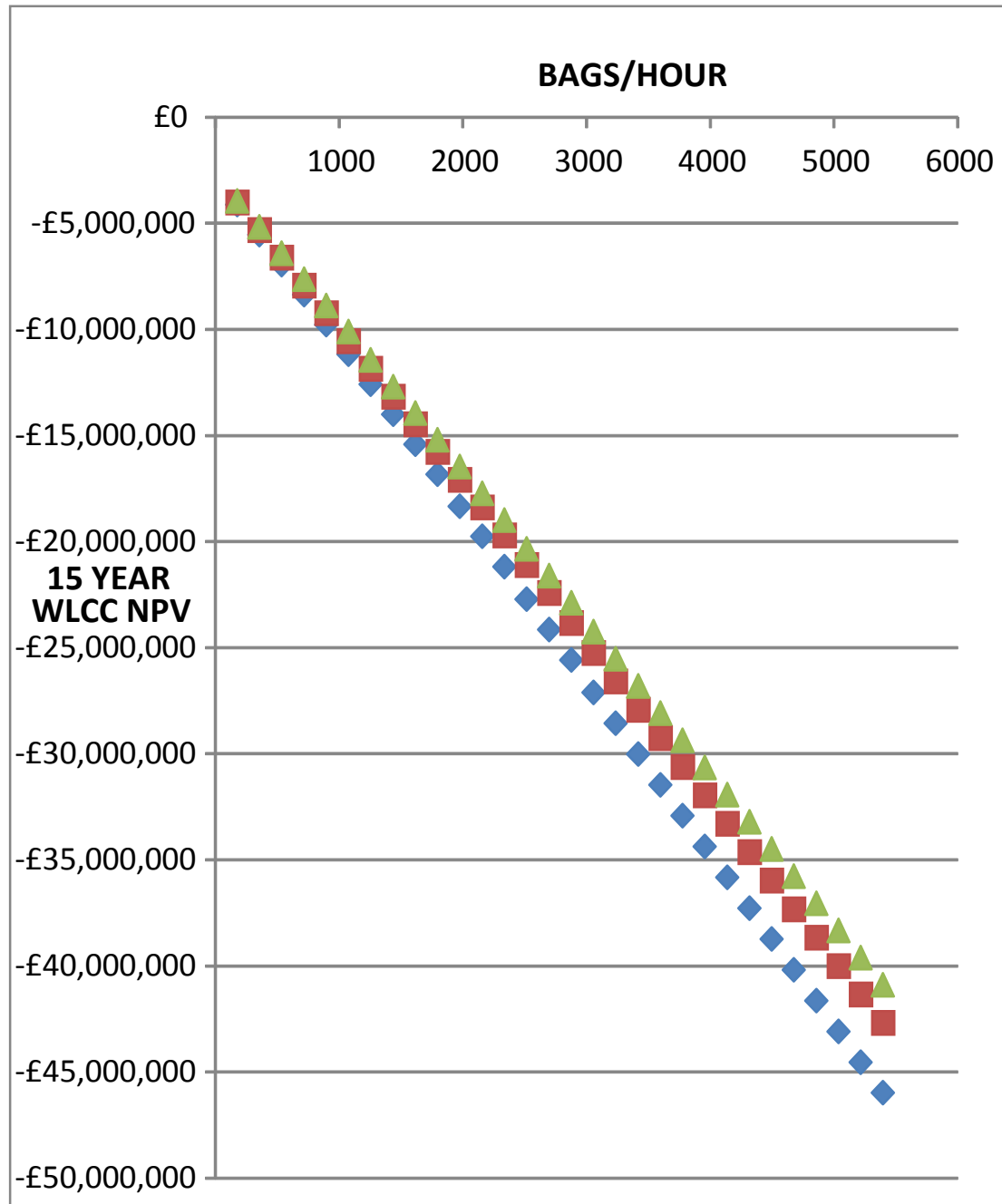
It can be seen that the fully automatic BHS solutions are the second cheapest, the semi-automatic BHS solution is the cheapest, and the manual BHS solution is the most expensive from a WLCC NPV perspective.

When the high staff loading rate factor is applied, the graphed results of Figure 50, Figure 51, and Figure 52 shows that when processing either (i) long haul or (ii) short haul / long haul mixed traffic, the semi-automated BHSs is the cheapest solution from a WLCC NPV perspective.

Figure 50: High staff loading rate scenario: Short haul only⁸³

Key:

- ◆ Fully Automatic BHS
- Semi-Automatic BHS
- ▲ Manual BHS

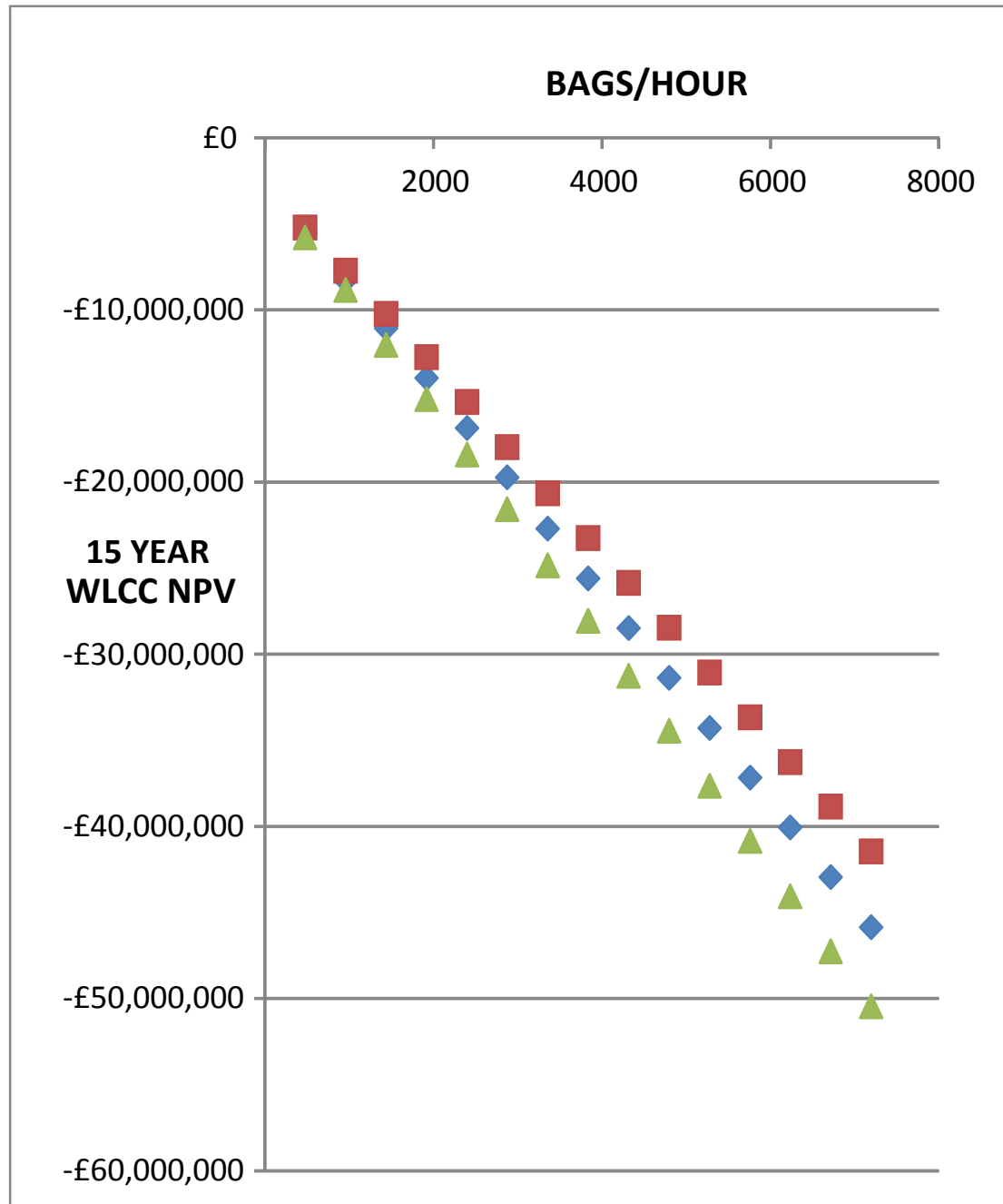


⁸³ This figure shows the WLCC NPV results using the following input parameters.
 59% CAPEX factor applied
 59% OPEX factor applied
 3% inflation applied
 3bags/min loading rate

Figure 51: High staff loading rate scenario: Long haul only⁸⁴

Key:

- ◆ Fully Automatic BHS
- Semi-Automatic BHS
- ▲ Manual BHS

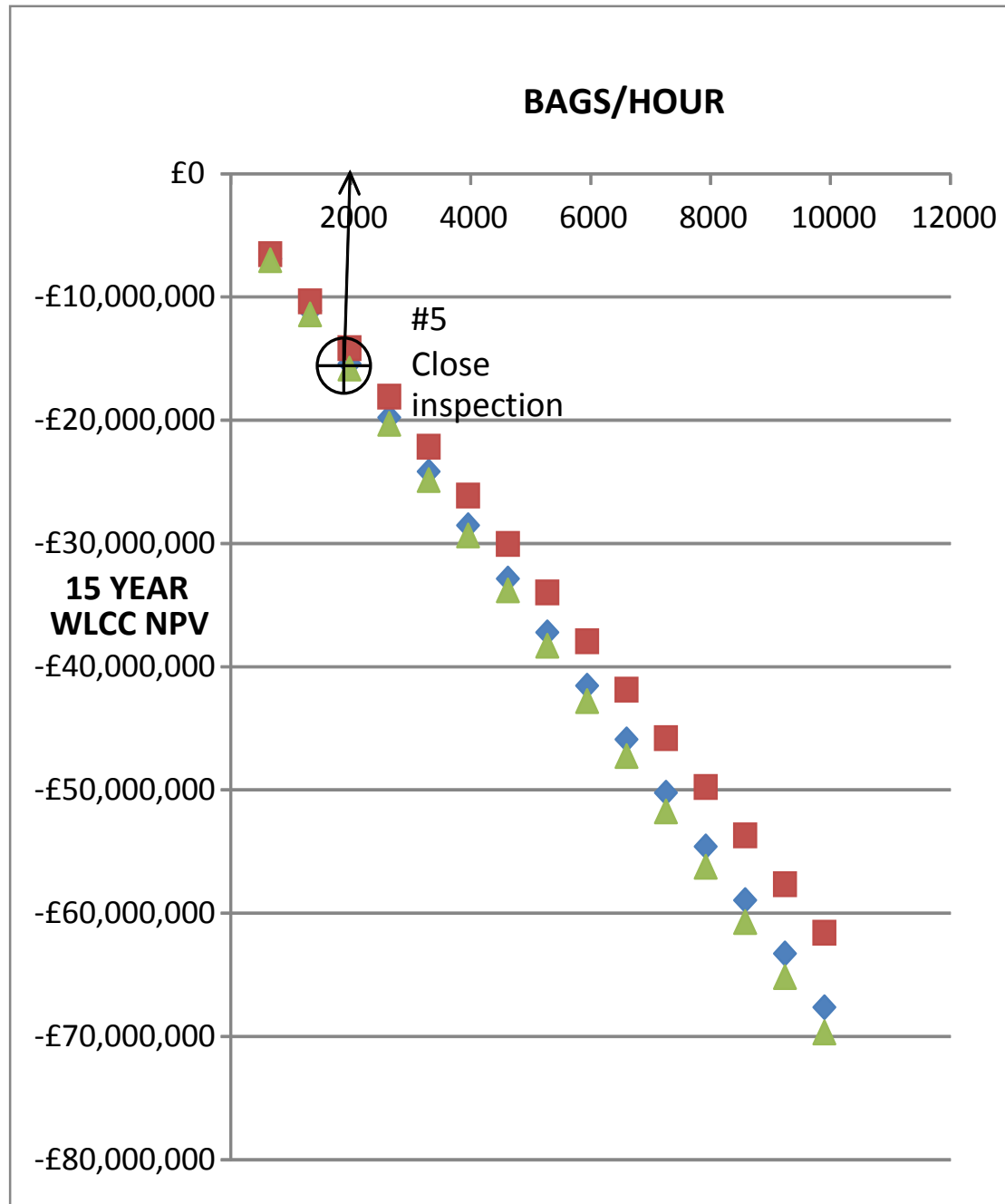


⁸⁴ This figure shows the WLCC NPV results using the following input parameters.
 59% CAPEX factor applied
 59% OPEX factor applied
 3% inflation applied
 3bags/min loading rate

Figure 52: High staff loading rate scenario: Short haul / Long haul mix ⁸⁵

Key:

- ◆ Fully Automatic BHS
- Semi-Automatic BHS
- ▲ Manual BHS



⁸⁵ This figure shows the WLCC NPV results using the following input parameters.
 59% CAPEX factor applied
 59% OPEX factor applied
 3% inflation applied
 3bags/min loading rate

6.14 Sensitivity low loading rate bags/min results

This section contains the results of the WLCC NPV experiments where the low staff loading rate factor has been applied.

6.14.1 Re: Short haul only

Figure 53 shows that when the low loading rate sensitivity is applied to the model processing only short haul traffic the WLCC NPV ranking of the BHSs types remain predominantly unchanged when compared to the base reference data seen in Figure 32. There is a small bandwidth though of throughout demand in this scenario where the fully automatic BHS solution type gets promoted to second cheapest and the manual BHSs get demoted to the most expensive solution type (see Appendix H).

It can be seen that the fully automatic BHS solution is predominantly the most expensive, the semi-automatic BHS solution is the cheapest, and the manual BHS solution is predominantly the second cheapest from a WLCC NPV perspective.

6.14.2 Re: Long haul only

Figure 54 shows that when the low loading rate sensitivity is applied to BHSs that process only long haul traffic the WLCC NPV rankings of fully automatic, semi-automatic and manual BHSs remain unchanged when compared to the base reference data seen in Figure 33.

It can be seen that the fully automatic BHS solution is the second cheapest, the semi-automatic BHS solution is the cheapest, and the manual BHS solution is the most expensive from a WLCC NPV perspective.

6.14.3 Re: Long haul short haul mix

It can be seen in Figure 55 that when the low loading rate sensitivity is applied to BHSs that process short haul, long haul, and combined long haul short haul mix traffic, the WLCC NPV rankings of fully automatic, semi-automatic and manual BHSs remain unchanged when compared to the base reference data seen in Figure 34.

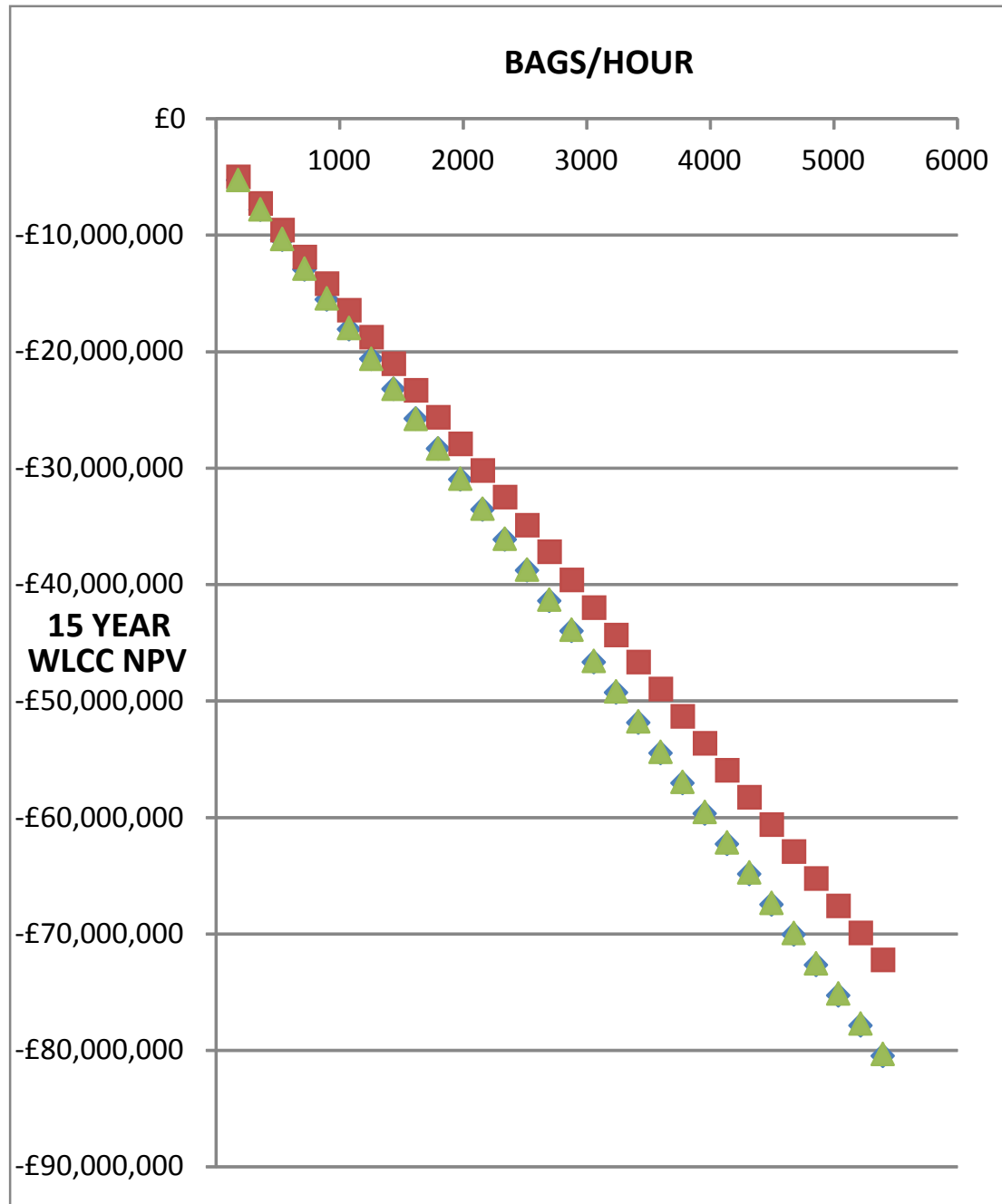
It can be seen that the fully automatic BHS solution is the second cheapest, the semi-automatic BHS solution is the cheapest, and the manual BHS solution is the most expensive from a WLCC NPV perspective.

When the low staff loading rate factor is applied, the graphed results of Figure 53, Figure 54, and Figure 55 shows that when processing either (i) short haul only; (ii) long haul only; and (iii) combined short haul / long haul mixed traffic, the semi-automated BHSs are the cheapest solution from a WLCC NPV perspective.

Figure 53: Low staff loading rate scenario: Short haul only⁸⁶

Key:

- ◆ Fully Automatic BHS
- Semi-Automatic BHS
- ▲ Manual BHS

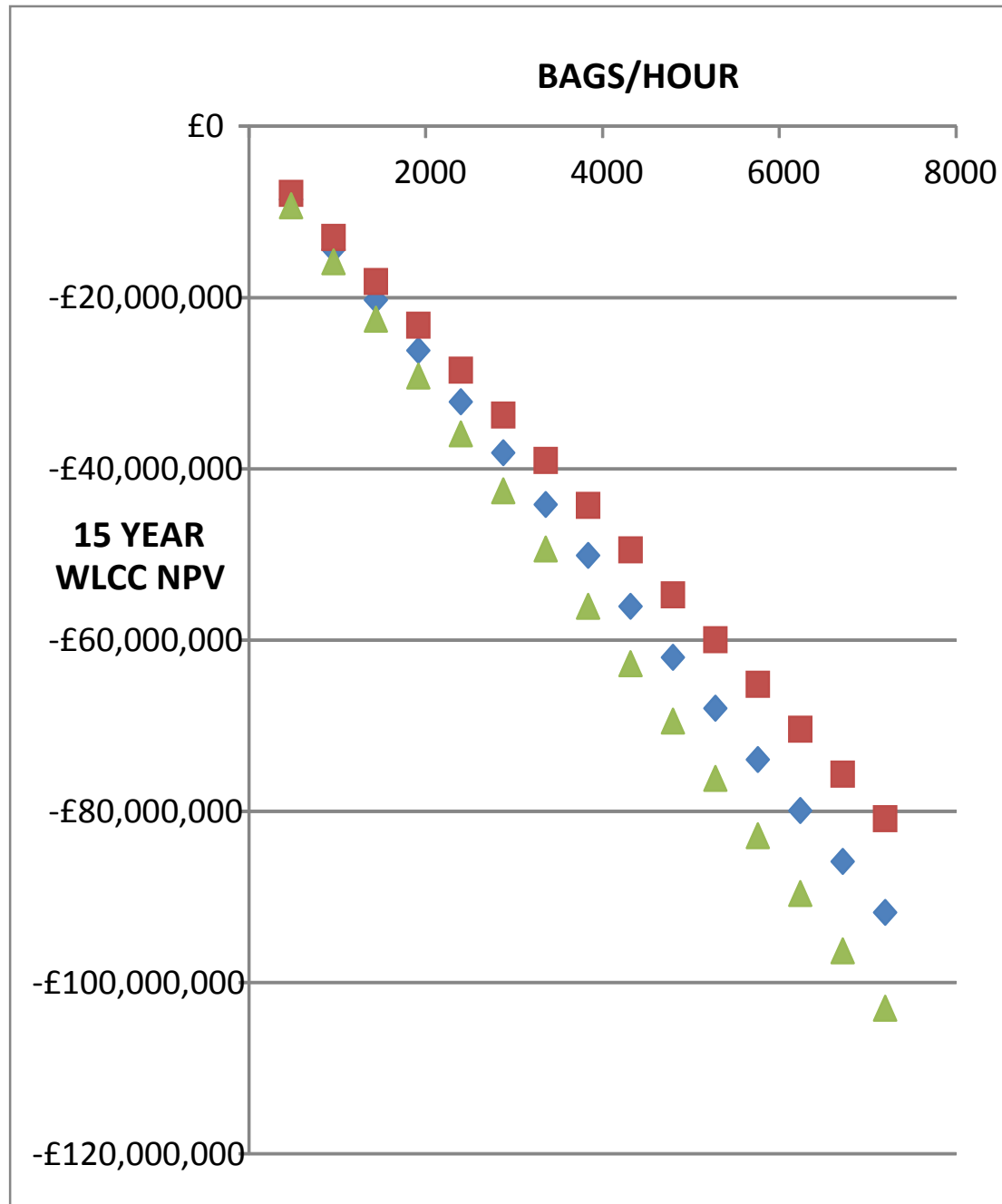


⁸⁶ This figure shows the WLCC NPV results using the following input parameters.
 59% CAPEX factor applied
 59% OPEX factor applied
 3% inflation applied
 1bags/min loading rate

Figure 54: Low staff loading rate scenario: Long haul only⁸⁷

Key:

- ◆ Fully Automatic BHS
- Semi-Automatic BHS
- ▲ Manual BHS

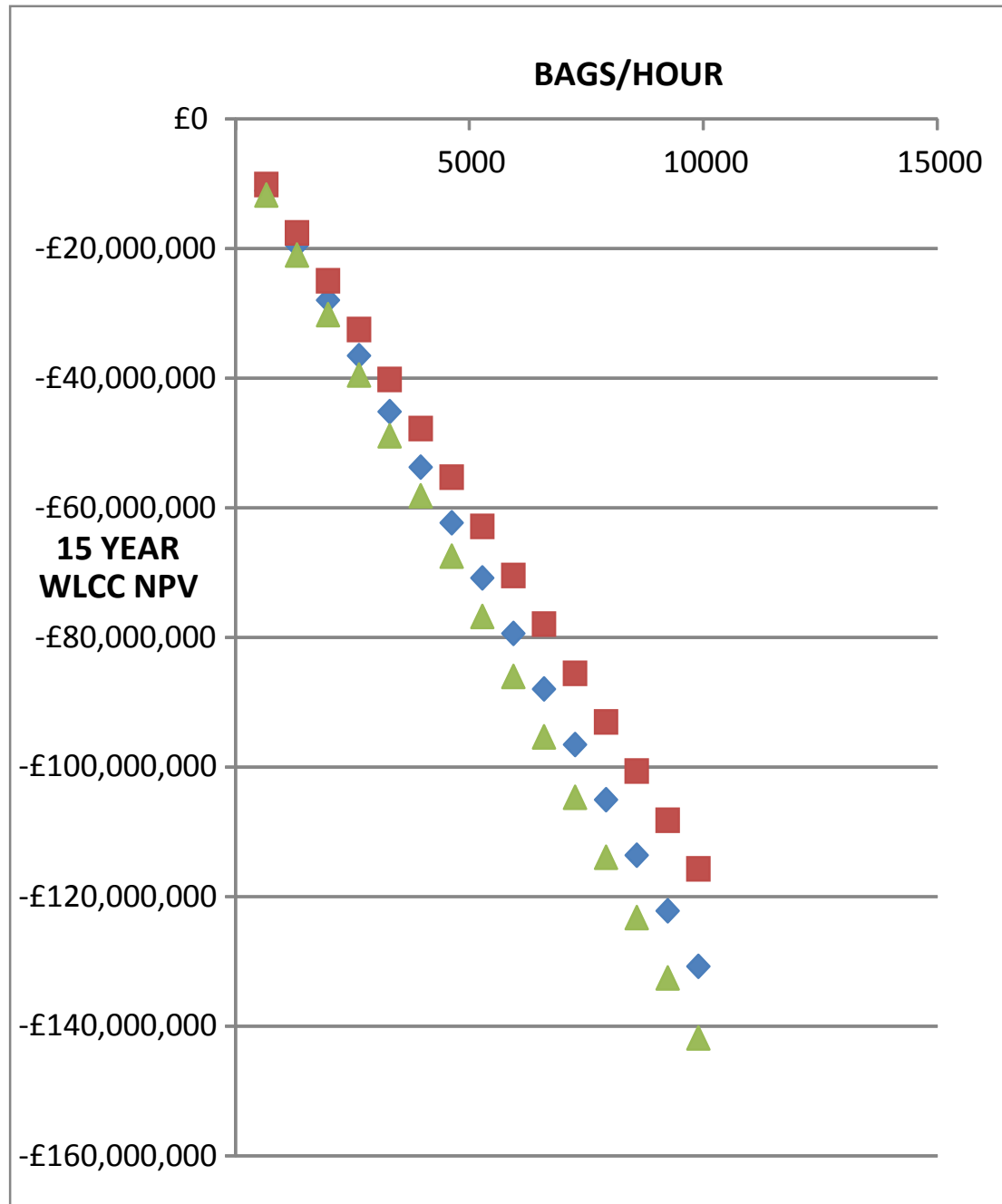


⁸⁷ This figure shows the WLCC NPV results using the following input parameters.
 59% CAPEX factor applied
 59% OPEX factor applied
 3% inflation applied
 1bags/min loading rate

Figure 55: Low staff loading rate scenario: Short haul /Long haul mix⁸⁸

Key:

- ◆ Fully Automatic BHS
- Semi-Automatic BHS
- ▲ Manual BHS



⁸⁸ This figure shows the WLCC NPV results using the following input parameters.
 59% CAPEX factor applied
 59% OPEX factor applied
 3% inflation applied
 1bags/min loading rate

6.15: Close inspections

The results contained within Figure 29 through to Figure 55 show that under certain WLCC NPV sensitivity scenarios the ranking of the fully automatic, the semi-automatic, and the manual BHSs were witnessed to be commercially very similar. It is at the similar 15 year WLCC NPV values, which relate to specific BHS capacity rates (#1- 1080bags/hr, #2 - 1980 bags/hr, #3 - 3960 bags/hr, #4 -1980 bags/hr, #5 - 1980 bags/hr), where the close inspection examinations have been chosen. The results contained within Figure 29 through to Figure 55 are the total WLCC NPVs which are witnessed at the end of the 15 year period.

Those instances where WLCC NPV ranking are very similar were inspected closely at specific bags/hour rates. This section examines the five inspections points that were graphed with year on year WLCC NPV from year 1 through to year 25.

6.15.1 Re: Inspection #1 BASE reference mid range scenario: Short haul only

It can be seen in Figure 56 that for a BHS processing 1080 bags/hr, at the 15 year WLCC NPV point, the semi-automatic BHS is ranked the cheapest, the manual BHS is ranked second cheapest, and the fully automatic BHS is ranked the most expensive. It is interesting to note from the graphed data shown that the semi-automatic BHS only becomes cheapest from year 13 onward; prior to this the manual BHS solution has the cheapest WLCC NPV. With all BHS options shown the WLCC NPV does not recover to a WLCC NPV of £0 (breakeven point) within 15 years.

6.15.2 Re: Inspection #2 High CAPEX factor scenario: Short haul only

With respect to Figure 57 where BHSs are processing 1980 bags/hr, it can be observed that up-to and including the 25 year point, the manual BHS solution is the cheapest, the semi-automatic BHS type is the second cheapest and the fully automatic BHS type is the most expensive. It can be seen that beyond 25 years the semi-automatic BHS solution is likely to have the least WLCC NPV; this observation assumes that the variables considered remain constant, and that the BHS equipment is fully serviceable and operating within normal original specification limits.

With all BHS options shown the WLCC NPV does not recover to a WLCC NPV of £0 (breakeven point) within 15 years.

6.15.3 Re: Inspection #3 High CAPEX factor scenario: Long / Short haul mix

Figure 58 details a BHSs processing 3960 bags/hr. At the 15 year life point and thereafter the rankings are maintained with the semi-automatic BHS ranked the cheapest, the fully automatic BHS is ranked the second cheapest and the manual BHS are ranked the most expensive from a WLCC NPV perspective. For the first 3 years of operation the manual BHS is cheaper than the fully automatic BHS, thereafter the fully automatic BHS type becomes cheaper than the manual BHS solution type.

With all BHS options shown the WLCC NPV does not recover to a WLCC NPV of £0 (breakeven point) within 15 years.

6.15.4 Re: Inspection #4 Low OPEX factor scenario: short haul only

It can be seen in Figure 59 that when BHSs are processing 1080 bags/hr at the 15 year life point that the semi-automatic BHS is the second cheapest, the manual BHS is the cheapest, and the fully automatic BHS solution is the most expensive from a WLCC-

NPV perspective. These rankings are maintained through to the 25 year point. With all BHS options shown the WLCC NPV does not recover to a WLCC NPV of £0 (breakeven point) within 15 years.

6.15.5 Re: Inspection #5 High staff loading rate scenario: Short haul / Long haul mix

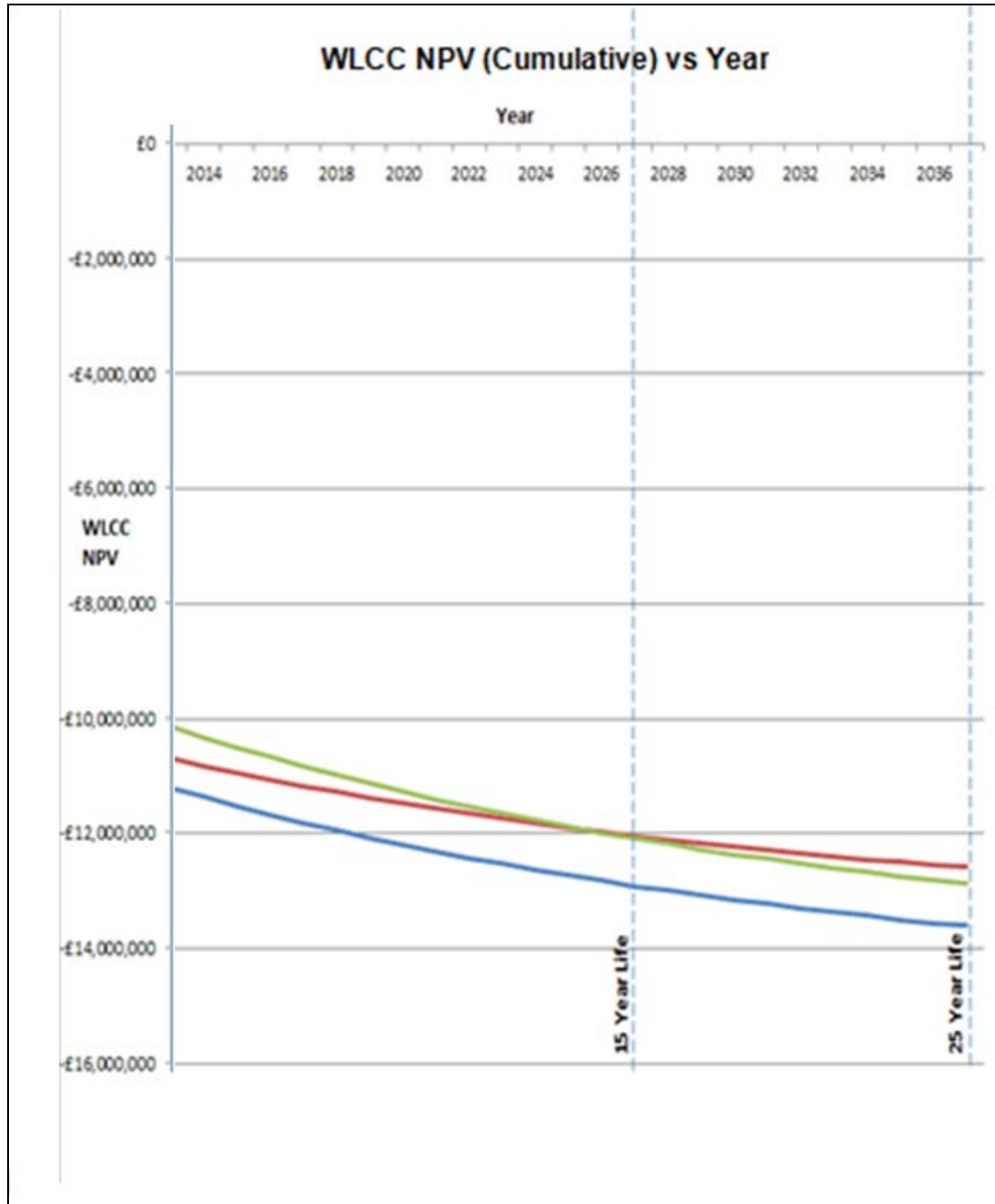
With regard to Figure 60 showing WLCC NPV data for BHSs processing 1980 bags/hr, with a high staff loading rate factor, it is observed that at the 15 year point the semi-automated BHS solution is ranked the cheapest, and remains cheapest thereafter. In year 1 and 2 the manual BHS is the second cheapest, thereafter it becomes the most expensive. In year 1 and 2 the fully automatic BHS type is the most expensive, thereafter it then it becomes the second cheapest.

With all BHS options shown the WLCC NPV does not recover to a WLCC NPV of £0 (breakeven point) within 15 years, however the WLCC NPV amounts in each case do decrease year on year. It is likely that after year 25-30 the WLCC NPV amounts will start to plateau and remain as constants; this observation assumes that the variables considered remain constant, and that the BHS equipment is fully serviceable and operating within normal original specification limits.

Figure 56: Close inspection #1 at 1080 bags/hr⁸⁹

Key:

- Fully Automatic BHS
- Semi-Automatic BHS
- Manual BHS



⁸⁹ BASE reference mid-range scenario: Short Haul Only

This figure shows the WLCC NPV results at 1080 bags/hr using the following input parameters.

59% CAPEX factor applied

59% OPEX factor applied

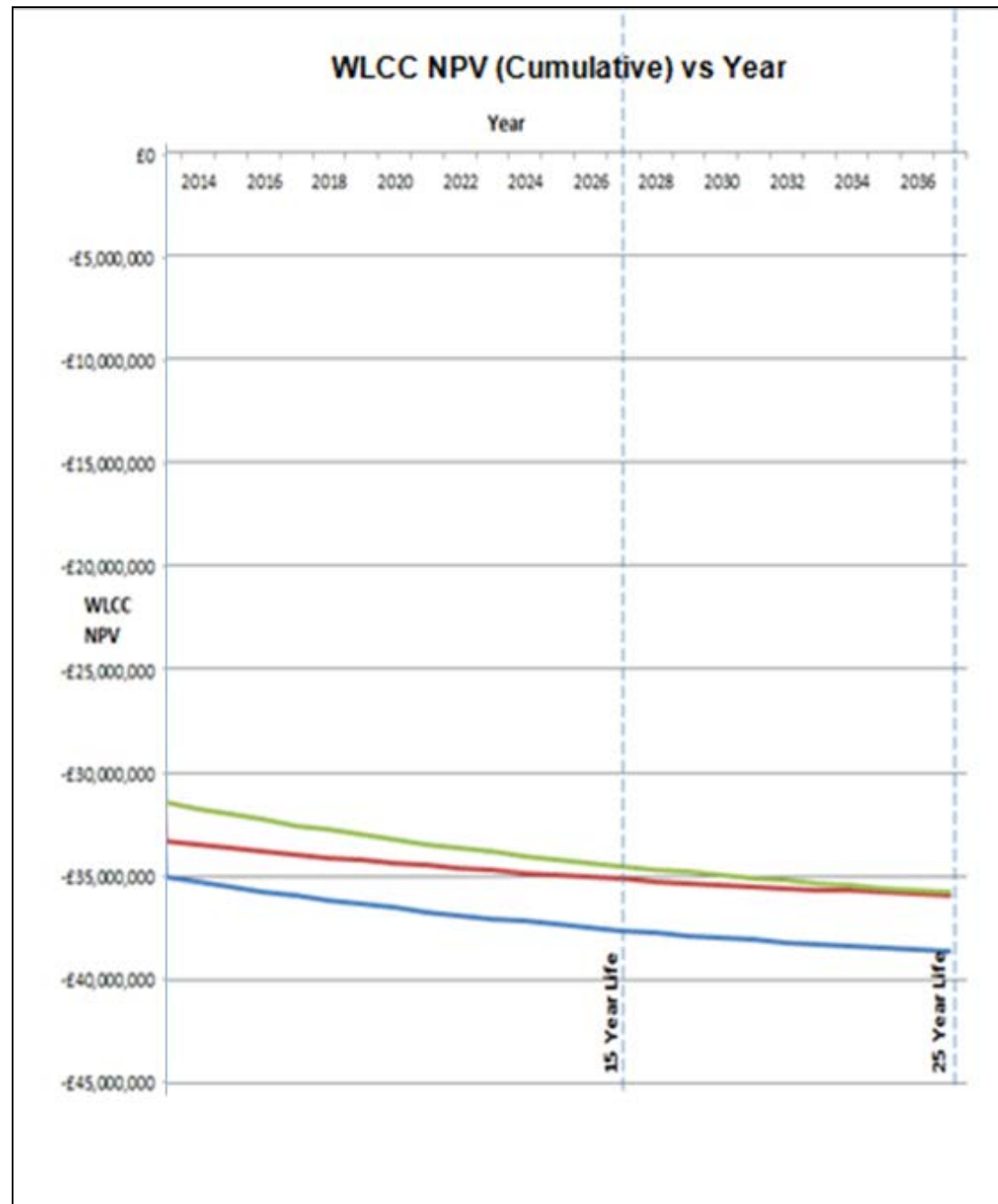
3% inflation applied

2bags/min loading rate

Figure 57: Close inspection #2 at 1980 bags/hr⁹⁰

Key:

- Fully Automatic BHS
- Semi-Automatic BHS
- Manual BHS

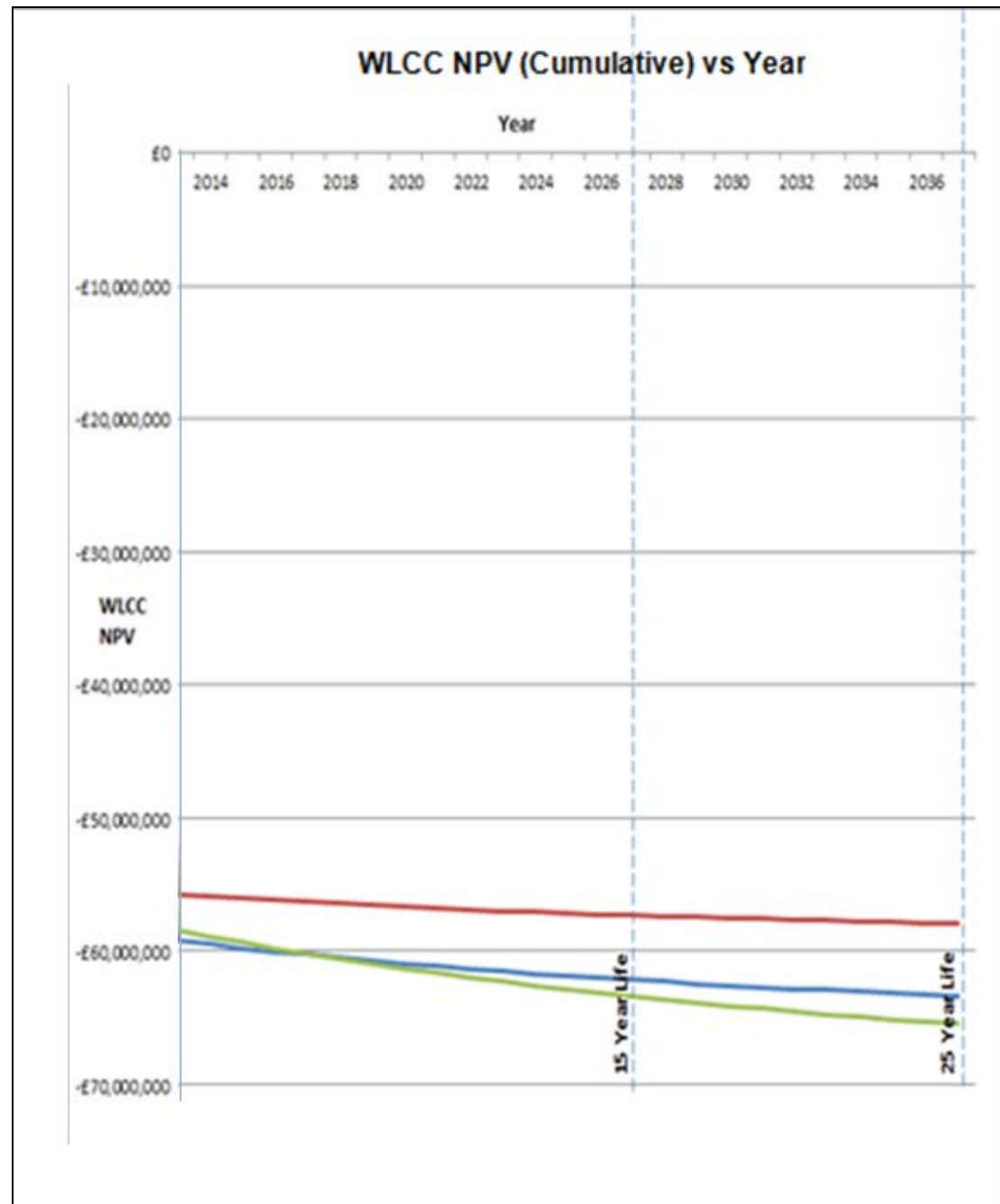


⁹⁰ High CAPEX factor scenario: Short Haul Only
 This figure shows the WLCC NPV results at 1980 bags/hr using the following input parameters.
 110% CAPEX factor applied
 59% OPEX factor applied
 3% inflation applied
 2bags/min loading rate

Figure 58: Close inspection #3 at 3960 bags/hr⁹¹

Key:

- Fully Automatic BHS
- Semi-Automatic BHS
- Manual BHS



⁹¹ High CAPEX factor scenario: Long / Short Haul Mix

This figure shows the WLCC NPV results at 3960 bags/hr using the following input parameters.

110% CAPEX factor applied

59% OPEX factor applied

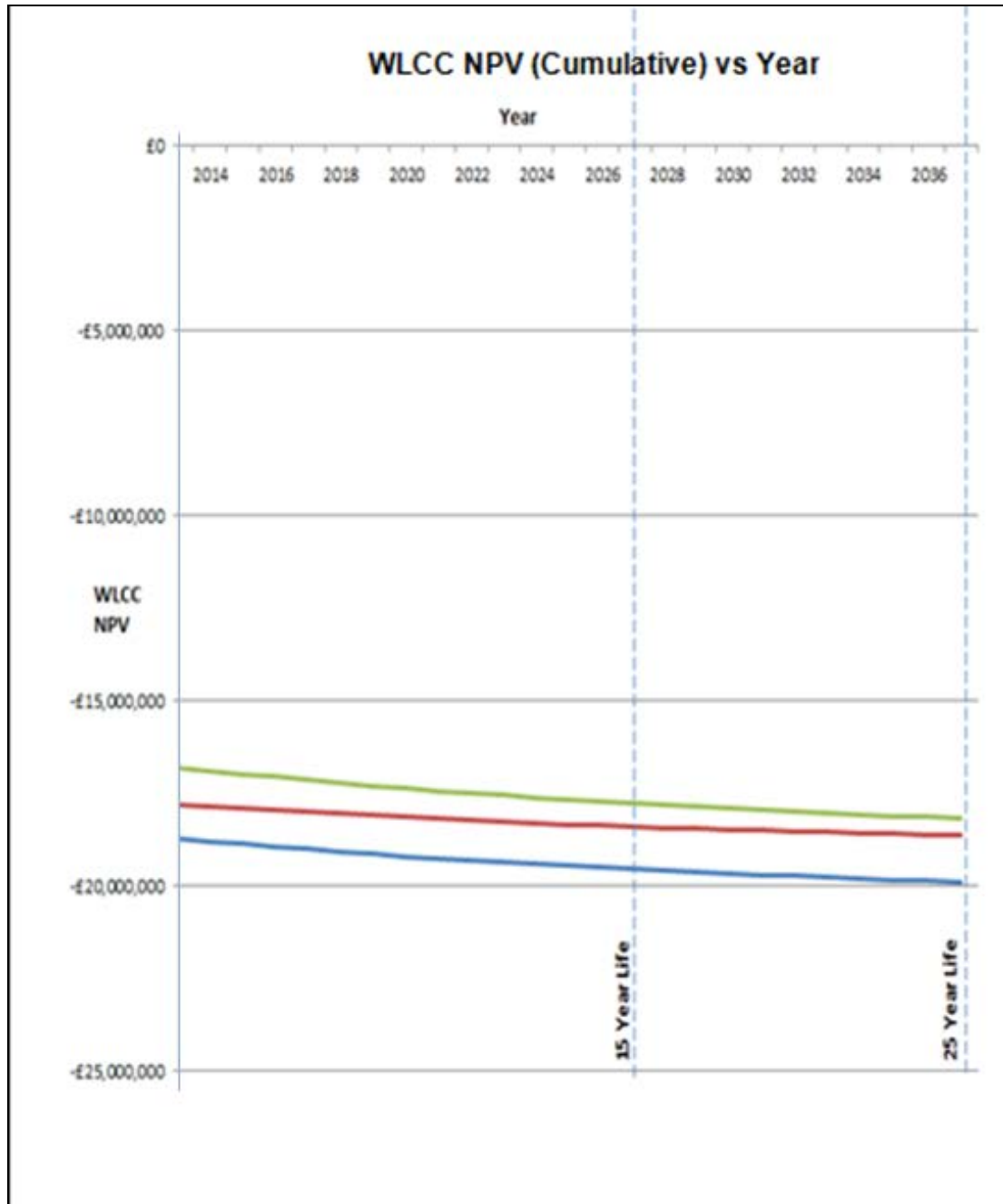
3% inflation applied

2bags/min loading rate

Figure 59: Close inspection #4 at 1980 bags/hr⁹²

Key:

- Fully Automatic BHS
- Semi-Automatic BHS
- Manual BHS



⁹² Low OPEX factor scenario: Short Haul Only

This figure shows the WLCC NPV results at 1980 bags/hr using the following input parameters.

59% CAPEX factor applied

19% OPEX factor applied

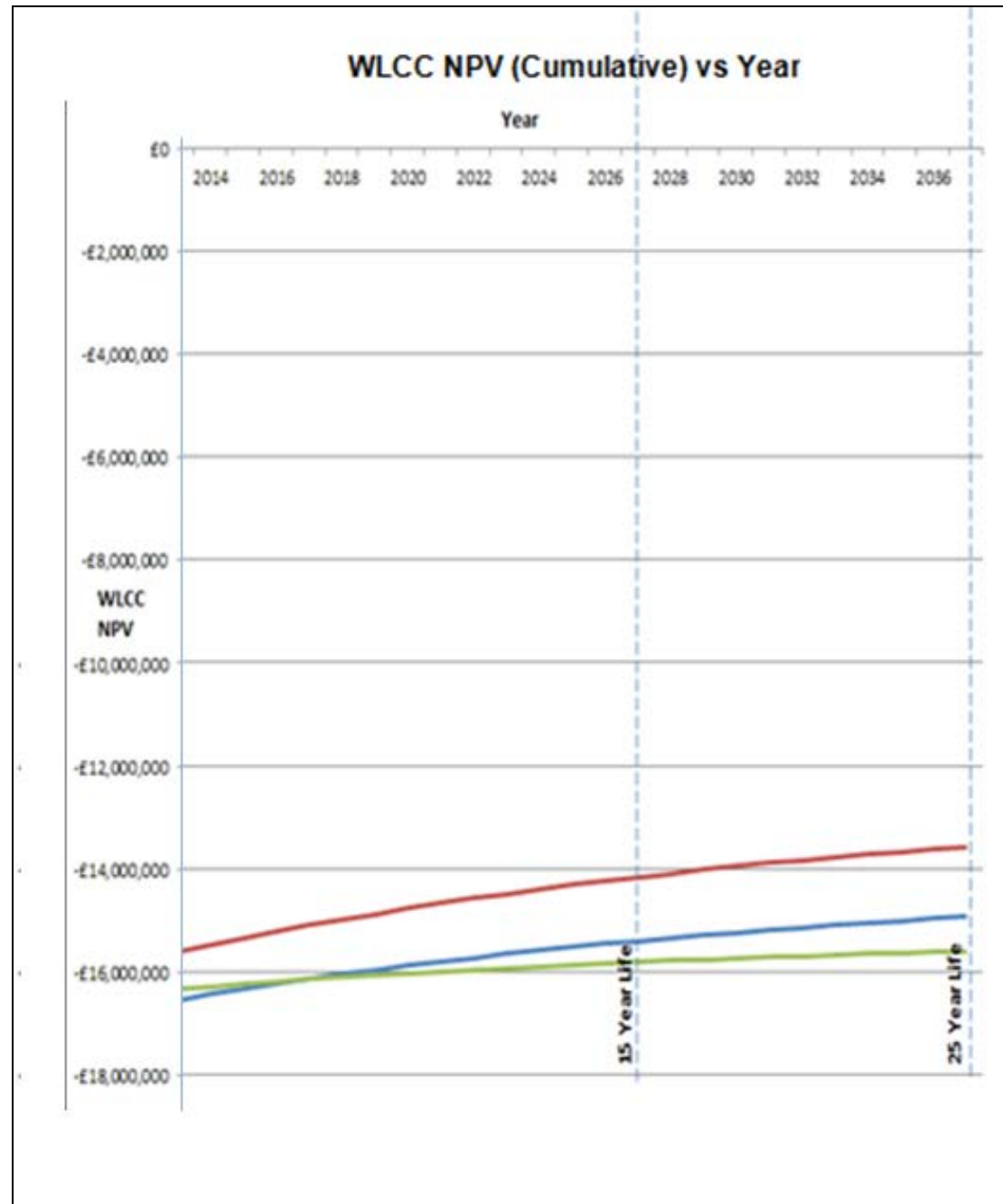
3% inflation applied

2bags/min loading rate

Figure 60: Close inspection #5 at 1980 bags/hr⁹³

Key:

- Fully Automatic BHS
- Semi-Automatic BHS
- Manual BHS



⁹³ High staff loading rate (Bags/Min) scenario: Long and Short Haul Mix
 This figure shows the WLCC NPV results at 1980 bags/hr using the following input parameters.
 59% CAPEX factor applied
 59% OPEX factor applied
 3% inflation applied
 3bags/min loading rate

It can be seen from the close inspections shown within Figure 56 to Figure 60 inclusive that the financial viability of BHSs can change throughout the normal 15 year life period for a BHS and indeed after this period.

BHSs that have high staff loading rates will recover their costs significantly quicker than those that do not.

6.16 Pre results validation

Once the model was completed, and prior to the tests being carried out, it was necessary to validate/benchmark the output, Merkert R, Odeck J, Brathen S, Pagliari R, (2012), to ascertain if the model generated credible results. Obtaining real relevant airport baggage system reference data has proved to be quite challenging, as it was necessary to approach independent baggage system designers to obtain the required data. The principle of the validation exercise was to compare actual data for the reference airports obtained with data output generated from the model using the same flight schedule inputs (see appendix B and Figure 61 – “Flight Schedule Peak Flights/Hour” column). The model BHS capital cost output were then calibrated so that discrepancies in bags/hour processed, resultant baggage hall areas, and the conversion from £’s sterling into Euros was taken into account.

The model generates many technical and financial outputs as detailed in Figure 7 when flight schedule inputs are entered into the Input variables worksheet. The model requires the following inputs before it will generate output result data:

- # of Short Haul Flights / Hour : Main flight schedule input, the model uses a typical Code C aircraft, 180 seats and 1 bag / passenger ratio applied.

- # of Long Haul Flights / Hour: Main flight schedule input, the model uses a typical Code E aircraft, 400 seats and 1.2 bags / passenger ratio applied.
- Peaking Factor %: Set at zero⁹⁴ for the benchmarking activity.
- CAPEX Factor: Set at one⁹⁵ (UK 2011 prices) for the benchmarking activity.
- OPEX Factor⁹⁶: Not required for the benchmarking activity.
- Inflation Rate⁹⁷: Not required for the benchmarking activity.
- Staff loading Rate Bags/Min: Set at the base loading rate of
- 2 bags/min/operator.

This input information was provided by the designer of Schiphol Airport, Terminal 1 ('South'), Bergen Airport New Terminal, Oslo Airport Terminal 2 and Johannesburg airport.

Figure 61: Validation: Actual airport data vs Calibrated model data

AIRPORT	ACTUAL AIRPORT DATA						CALIBRATION Factor function F(x) Bags/hr+ Area Exchange rate £1 = 0.86 euro	CALIBRATED EMPIRICAL MODEL OUTPUT	
	<u>Flight Schedule</u>		Rate	<u>BHS CAPEX</u>	<u>BHS Area</u>	<u>BHS Process</u>		<u>CAPEX</u>	<u>BHS Area</u>
	<u>Peak Flights/hour</u>								
	<u>#SH</u>	<u>#LH</u>							
			<u>Bph</u>	<u>Euros</u>	<u>m2</u>			<u>Euros</u>	<u>m2</u>
Schiphol T1 ('South')	27	0	2393	122,000,000	19,914	Pull (automation)	0.99	36,441,544	11,402
Bergen New Terminal	10	4	3720	20,000,000	8,750	Pull (automation)	1.25	29,708,706	10,174
Oslo T2 (Scenario 4)	39	1	3700	40,000,000	13,100	Push (conventional)	0.74	30,239,137	12,398
Johannesburg	4	12	6480	50,000,000	17,000	Push (conventional)	1.40	49,173,592	19,767

BHS designers, were approached and asked to provide actual airport BHS data. The actual airport data seen in

⁹⁴ Validation peaking factor: As with the main experiments excessive peak flow have not been assumed when calculating the validation data.

⁹⁵ Validation CAPEX Factor: All data was converted to UK prices (Factor = 1) then converted into Euros.

⁹⁶ Validation OPEX Factor: OPEX is not used in the CAPEX calculation hence is not required

⁹⁷ Validation inflation rate: Inflation is not used in the CAPEX year 1 calculation hence is not required.

Figure 61 represents the output from those investigations. A benchmarking comparison was made between the obtained actual airport data, and the data calculated by the model. In particular the BHS capital cost, and the BHS total area, were compared. Following the calibration⁹⁸ exercise, it can be seen from Figure 61 that, overall the model generated credible results, taking into account the multiple variables that are evidently affecting the BHS capital cost and the BHS total area.

Red cells indicate that the actual airport data does not compare favorably with the model data (variance is greater than 75%), Amber cells indicates that a reasonable comparison exists (variance is less than 33%), and Green cells indicate that a very good comparison exists (variance is less than 14%).

When running the model to create the data contained in Figure 61 above, for each scenario that was examined, the correct allocation of full automatic (robotic), and semi-automatic (RTT), and manual flight build technologies was made.

The Schiphol Terminal 1 South building is an old (~1960's) terminal building area. This airport offers a complicated and convoluted building area which has undoubtedly added a cost to the conveyors, and the resultant area needed is excessive due to abnormally long conveyor routings that are needed. The capital cost for Schiphol baggage system was reported by the independent cost consultant to be 122,000,000 Euros for the baggage system components alone. This is significantly more expensive than comparable modern baggage systems of the same capacity. For this reason this

⁹⁸ Calibration: Process by which the WLCC model derived data has been adjusted by the calibration factor. This factor, takes into account the affect of the exchange rate, the variation in bags processed per hour rate, and the variation in area.

has been excluded as potentially abnormal data that should really be discounted from the comparison exercise.

The actual area of the Bergen new terminal building solution is a close match to that generated using the model, whereas there the baggage system cost is slightly inaccurate. This is likely to be due to the variation in IATA 2003 cost factors, used within the model, compared to that of the witnessed 2011 cost factors for this region of the world. The model predicted a 75% accurate cost of the Oslo airport Terminal 2 baggage system. This again may be due to a variation between the IATA 2003 CAPEX factors compared with the actual witnessed 2011 national cost factors. The area predication made by the model for Bergen is very accurate.

The actual costs of Johannesburg baggage handling system and the area of the baggage handling system compared favorably to that generated by the model.

Since the model generated a favorable and reasonable comparison between actual airport data, and the theoretical calculated data output, it was not necessary to instigate any major adjustments to the model before the experimentation stage was completed.

The model was then used to generate the results contained herein.

6.17 Chapter summary

The Chapter explained how the results to the experiments were consistently captured by using a sub routine program to record the results data, which is denoted in Appendix H.

This Chapter graphically documents the results from each of the sensitivity tests that were conducted using the model. The WLCC NPV commercial rankings for each BHS flight build type are explained for each test. Where initial WLCC NPV tests results showed positions of data that warranted further close inspection because the results were commercially similar in magnitude, then a further inspection on such positions was carried out. Furthermore these close inspection plots were examined on 15, and 25 year WLCC NPV periods.

It was seen that in some instances, even with a modest £1/bag processed bag charge, it is possible to start to recover the WLCC NPV for a BHS development. It was noted that the cost / bag heavily influences the WLCC NPV.

Finally this section also explains how prior to running the experiments and obtaining the test results contained herein from the model a benchmarking process was carried out to ensure that the output from the model gave realistic results, which was proven to be the case. Chapter 6 that follows takes the data from individual tests, and assesses that data collectively, and concludes facts.

7. DISCUSSION

7.1 Main findings

This Chapter discusses the conclusions and main findings of the results obtained from the experiments carried out using the model. Answers to the research aims and objectives are provided using evidence from the research and the tests. The main findings are graphically summarized in Figure 63 that follows together with an explanation on how to utilize the findings appropriately.

The scatter diagram shown in Figure 63 denotes the summarized graphed results of all experiment scenarios, which are seen within Figure 29 through to Figure 55 inclusive. The WLCC NPV range for the IATA category A BHS solution is noted to be -£1m to -£20m. The WLCC NPV range for the IATA category B BHS solution is noted to be -£5m to -£90m. The WLCC NPV range for the IATA category C BHS solutions, are noted to be -£12m to greater than -£150m. These ranges relate to specific bags/hour capacities, and BHS technology solutions.

The wide WLCC NPV range within each category is a result of many factors that affect the WLCC NPV, not least (i) change in bags/hour rate; (ii) change in BHS solution type, (iii) sensitivity test parameter, e.g. High CAPEX / LOW CAPEX etc.

With respect to Figure 63 there are three poly trend⁹⁹ lines (see clauses 7.4, 7.5 and 7.6) that have been shown, these poly trend plots have been calculated for each BHS solution type (fully automatic, semi-automatic, and manual) using WLCC NPV data

⁹⁹ Poly trend lines: Each poly trend line is a summation of the 15 year WLCC sensitivity data per BHS capacity rate. A poly trend line is calculated for each type of BHS (Blue -Fully automatic, Red - Semi-automatic and Green - Manual)

from Appendix H. The WLCC NPV data for each BHS type has been averaged out, and the resultant mean value poly trend coordinates have been plotted.

These averaged poly trend line plots take into account all the test sensitivities that have been evaluated, and they are the graphical answer to the aim of PhD.

7.1.1 Linearity of scatter diagram results

Figure 63 references the year 15 spot WLCC NPV data for each BHS type and capacity tested. The graphed data seen in Figure 63 is correctly shown to be very linear. Fundamentally this is because the results are the cumulative spot year values seen in year 15 only for each test. Figure 63 does not show the year on year WLCC NPV values. The year on year non-linear cumulative WLCC NPV data is however inherently taken into account within the year 15 spot WLCC NPV data used in Figure 63. The year on year non-linear data detail can be seen within the sample close inspections graphs denoted within Figure 56, Figure 57, Figure 58, Figure 59, and Figure 60.

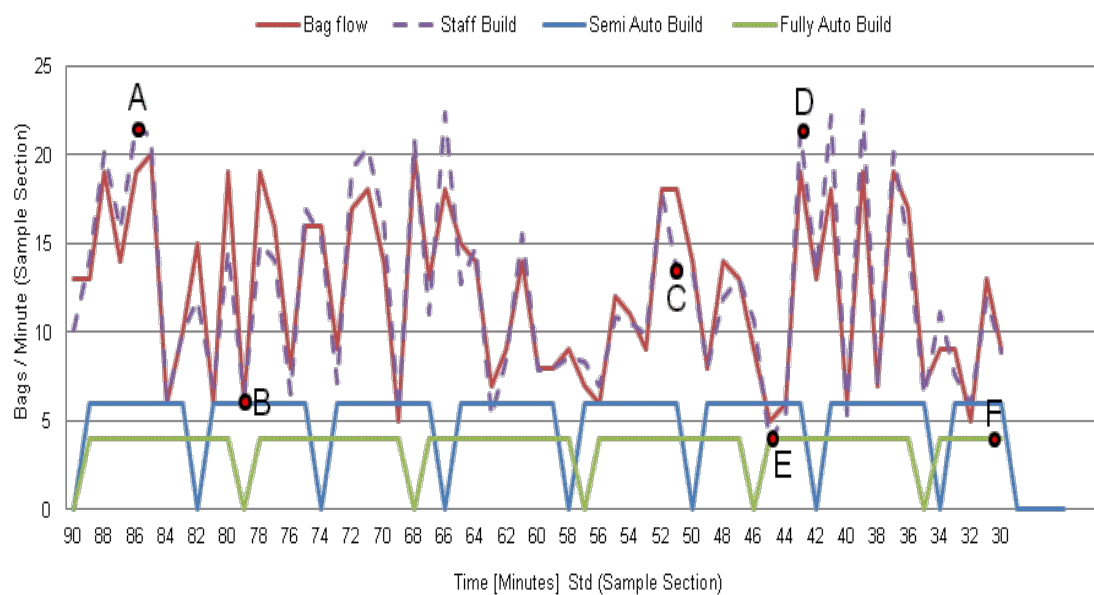
7.2 Answering the objectives

Figure 62 articulates how PhD objective 1, that is, to determine the point at which it is operationally most effective to use semi-automatic, and fully automatic baggage loading technologies was answered. It is possible to construct a BHS which will contain 100% fully automatic (robotic) build, or 100% semi-automatic build technology. It is equally possible to reduce these percentages so that effectively only one fully, or one semi-automatic build cell is present. These technologies have different bags/minute processing capabilities. This section determines the point at

which it is operationally most effective to use semi-automatic, and fully automatic baggage loading technologies, and answers objective 1.

The flow denoted in Figure 62 below shows that for the stated sample, the baseline “bag flow” demand is 5 bags/minute.

Figure 62: Demand and capacity



The sustained processing rate of a semi-automatic build device such as the RTT Longreach (Telair International) unit is noted to be 6 bags / minute / unit.

The sustained processing rate of fully automatic robotic build device such as the Grenzenbach solution is witnessed to be 4 bags / minute / unit.

Figure 62 shows, the productive, and non-productive graphed cycle time of a both semi-automatic, and a fully automatic build cells. Unlike the flexible deployment of human resources, it is inefficient to under-utilize a fixed hardware resource such as the semi-automated or fully automated build cell equipment.

With respect to Figure 62 Points A, and D show an over compensation in predicted required staff capacity compared with the actual proceeding flow rate of baggage within the system. Point B shows the baseline demand witnessed for the sample bag flow.

From Figure 62 one can conclude that a single fully automatic build cell would be close to 100% utilised if processing the stated sampled bag flow as its capacity (note Point F) is 4bags/minute/unit which is below the baseline demand of 5 bags/minute (note Point E). If two fully automatic build cells were deployed one would be heavily under utilised.

Similarly for the baggage flow demand depicted, if a single semi-automatic build cell were deployed with its 6 bags/minute/unit throughput rate it would be under-utilised by 1 bags/min/rate. If two semi-automatic build cells were deployed both would be under-utilised, and one would be extremely under-utilised. The BHSs deployed at AMS, and at LHR both incorporate a ~25% output capacity proportion of fully-automated/semi-automated components with ~ 75% of the remaining output being conventional technology (flight laterals or racetracks). These proportions provide confidence that these relatively expensive robotic, and RTT equipment tools will be highly utilised, whilst giving the ability to the airport to react efficiently to oscillatory periods of high peak demand. Fundamentally the proportion of semi-automated, or fully automated flight build equipment used should be driven by the proportion of sustained bag flow rate demand. If it can be demonstrated through analysis of the flight schedule that the sustained baggage flow throughput demand is 25% then 25% semi-automatic or fully automatic equipment should be used. Similarly if say the

sustained bag flow rate demand is 40% then 40% of semi-automatic or fully automatic equipment capacity should be selected. With reference to Figure 4 Real time Push/Pull Bag Automated Bag Load Philosophy diagram it can be seen that the at STD-60 minutes the baggage entering the BHS is considered to be “Hot build” bags. Due to the extended “in system time” associated with processing baggage through the hot build process it becomes necessary to build these bags using the conventional build process. This means that there will always be a need to build flights using a proportion of conventional build technology. Table 8 that follows explains the minimum, maximum, and recommended percentage of build type that can be used.

Table 8: Build type proportion summary

<u>Build Type</u>	<u>Build type used</u>		
	<u>Minimum %</u>	<u>EM Recommended %</u>	<u>Maximum %</u>
Conventional	25% ¹⁰⁰	75%	100%
Semi-automated Or Fully automated	Match Sustained ¹⁰¹ Demand	25% ¹⁰²	75%

Section 2.4 that is entitled “Baggage Operational Processes” answers PhD Objective 2, that is to determine what new semi, and fully automated and conventional baggage handling processes, and technologies exist, the performance capabilities of these technologies, for the use of loading of baggage into unit load devices.

¹⁰⁰ Typically 25% of bags are yet to be processed at the STD-60 Hot Build point (using equation 27)

¹⁰¹ Figure 72 shows that the minimum quantity of semi-automated and fully automated build is best set by matching equipment processing rate to sustained demand rate.

¹⁰² Reference AMS/LHR airport semi-automated and fully automated BHS each utilise 25% of this output build equipment.

The available processes were collated during the research of literature phase, and the recommended processes as defined within Figure 67, Figure 68, Figure 70, Figure 71, Figure 73, and Figure 74 are embedded with the model.

Chapter 3, 5, and Appendix H answers the PhD objective 3, that is, to investigate and determine the capital, and operating costs for semi, and fully automated, and conventional (manual) airport BHSs, through the development of the model. The results provided in Appendix H define the required output CAPEX, and OPEX for the various investigated BHS types. These were then used to determine the WLCC NPV comparisons. Objective 4 is also answered through the development of the model defined in Chapter 3 and 5,

7.3 Meeting the aim of the PhD investigation.

To recap the aim of the research was to determine, for any given set of baggage demand flows rates, the point at which it is more cost effective, from a capital cost and operating cost perspective, to select automated baggage build technologies in favour of conventional baggage build technologies when processing departing hold baggage.

With reference to Figure 63, and in particular the poly trend line WLCC NPV plots, taking into consideration capital cost, operating cost, bag charge revenue and all applied test sensitivities, one can conclude that the lowest WLCC NPV values, by far, shall be found with the semi-automatic BHS type. Between zero and 4000bags/hour, the manual BHS type is the second cheapest overall, and the fully automatic BHS type is marginally the most expensive from a WLCC NPV perspective. After this 4000bags/hour point the fully automatic BHS type becomes the second cheapest, and

the manual BHS type becomes the most expensive from a WLCC NPV perspective. Furthermore, beyond the 4000bags/hour point the manual BHS WLCC NPV then progressively gets more and more expensive.

7.4 The α - Poly trend plot

It can be seen from the “ α ” poly trend plot within Figure 63 that the WLCC NPV for the fully automatic BHS solution tends to plateau¹⁰³ out and arguably would payback¹⁰⁴ albeit over an extended equipment life period.

7.5 The β - Poly trend plot

It can be seen from the “ β ” poly trend plot within Figure 63 that the WLCC NPV for the semi-automatic BHS solution also tends to plateau out and arguably would payback albeit over an extended equipment life period also.

7.6 The δ - Poly trend plot

It can be seen from the “ δ ” poly trend plot within Figure 63 that the WLCC NPV for the manual BHS solution tends to deviate away from the payback position. Payback would not occur for the majority of these manual BHS systems even over an extended equipment life period.

In conclusion it is clear that the WLCC NPV range of BHS solutions is heavily influenced by commercial, and performance sensitivities that have been tested within the experiments. When an airport makes a BHS technology selection judgment for a

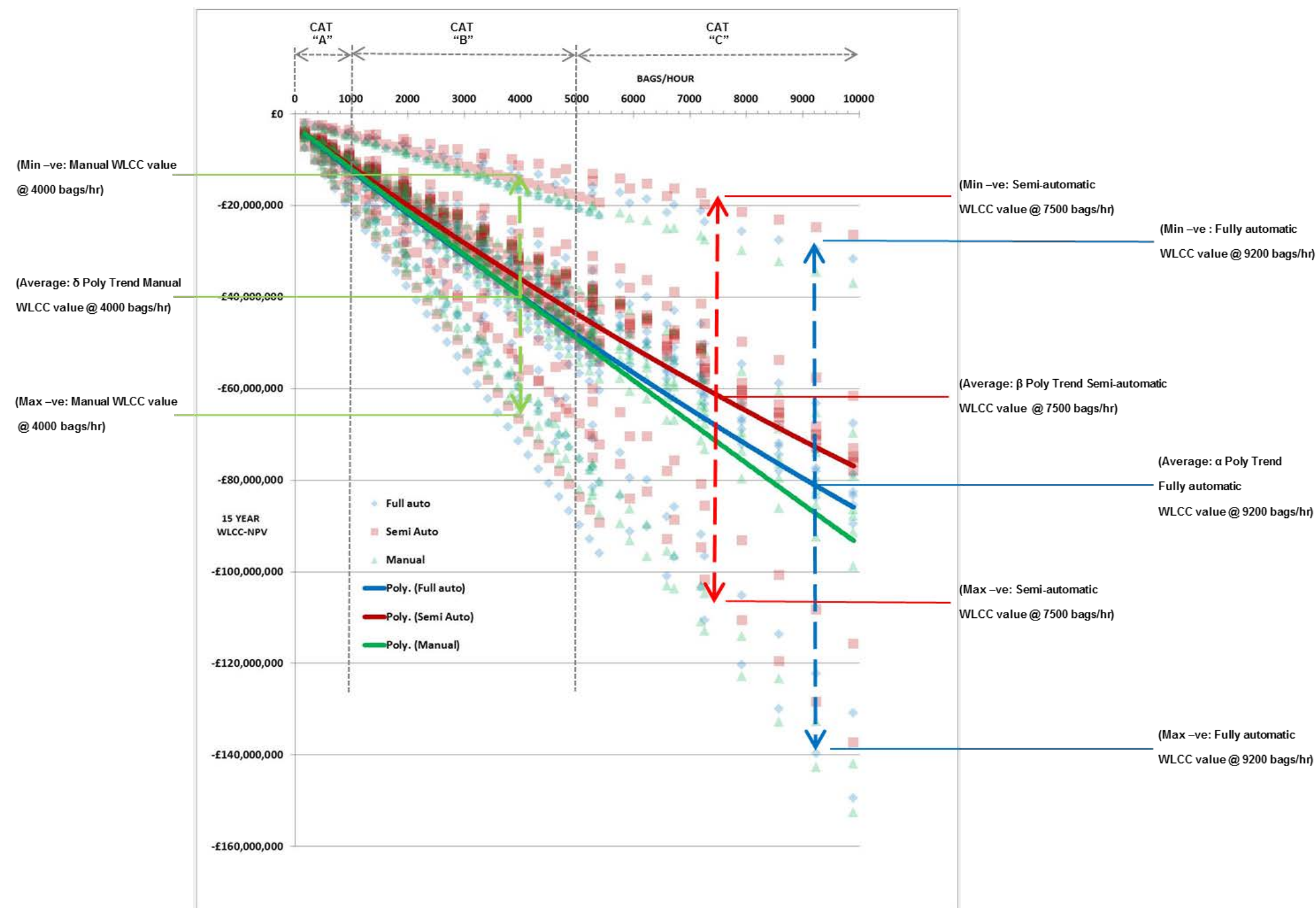
¹⁰³ Plateau: Point at which the WLCC NPV start to be maintained at a relatively constant rate.

¹⁰⁴ Payback: With reference to graphs of “year in operation vs WLCC NPV”, this is the year when the WLCC NPV has the numerical value of zero.

particular airport location, the prevailing commercial and social economic conditions should be taken into account. For example if an airport is located in an area where the capital cost of the solution is going to be adversely high when compared to other locations of the world, then the airport operator should be less steered by the general results seen in Figure 63, and instead should consider the results, and conclusions made with high CAPEX experiment results seen in Figure 29, Figure 30, and Figure 31. Inversely, and similarly if the airport company making the BHS type decision is geographically located in a zone where capital cost are lower than average, then they should be steered by the results and conclusion documented in Figure 35, Figure 36, and Figure 37.

The results obtained from the model were focused on changing only one test sensitivity at a time, relative to the base results. It is quite possible that an airport operator with the objective of making a bespoke decision may actually need to take into account more than one test sensitivity. A specific mix of the test sensitivities to achieve an accurate representation of the social economic environment that exists at the proposed airport BHS location maybe required. For example geographically the capital cost could be average but the operating cost could be relatively low initially, but it is anticipated that in the not too distance future, that the operating costs could climb, and hence a high inflation factor should be used in the model calculation. It is also quite possible that the staff work loading rate could be higher than average, and so a further sensitivity needs to be taken into account in parallel. The poly line data conclusions seen in Figure 63 provide the most relevant conclusion for the scenario where all of the test sensitivities are taken into account simultaneously.

Figure 63: Summary scatter diagram all scenarios: Long and short haul¹⁰⁵



¹⁰⁵ This figure shows all the WLCC NPV (Discounted) results using all of sensitivities scenarios denoted in the following input parameters.
 19% - 59% - 110% CAPEX factor applied
 19% - 59% - 110% OPEX factor applied
 1% - 3% - 7% inflation applied
 1 - 2 - 3 bags/min loading rate

7.7 Sensitivity conclusions

From the results, and conclusions provided in Chapter 5, and the findings tabulated in Table 9, Table 10, and Table 11 it can be seen that the selected sensitivities can have varied impact upon the financial WLCC NPV ranking (position) of the BHSs that were technically constructed, and financially assessed within the model environment.

Table 9: Effect of test sensitivities upon BHS WLCC NPV relative to base conditions for short haul traffic.

<u>Sensitivity</u>	<u>WLCC Ranking</u>		
	<u>First place Lowest¹⁰⁶</u>	<u>Second place</u>	<u>Third place Highest¹⁰⁷</u>
Base	Semi-automatic	Manual	Fully automatic
High CAPEX	Manual	Semi-automatic	Fully automatic
Low CAPEX	Semi-automatic	Manual	Fully automatic
High OPEX	Semi-automatic	Manual	Fully automatic
Low OPEX	Manual	Semi-automatic	Fully automatic
High inflation	Semi-automatic	Manual	Fully automatic
Low inflation	Semi-automatic	Manual	Fully automatic
High staff loading rate	Manual	Semi-automatic	Fully-automatic
Low staff loading rate	Semi-automatic	Manual ¹⁰⁸	Fully automatic ¹⁰⁹

The greatest change in WLCC NPV ranking is witnessed when processing short haul traffic as denoted in Table 9.

A CAPEX, OPEX, and area summary report for a BHS processing 2340 bags/hour of short haul traffic is detailed in Figure 64. A CAPEX, OPEX, and area summary report for a BHS processing 2340 bags/hour of long haul traffic is detailed in Figure 65.

It can be seen in Figure 64, and Figure 65 that:

¹⁰⁶ Definition “Lowest” - The WLCC has the lowest numerical value

¹⁰⁷ Definition “Highest” – The WLCC has the highest numerical value

¹⁰⁸ Manual solution is predominantly ranked second place

¹⁰⁹ Fully automatic is predominantly ranked third place

- The short haul BHSs have the greatest BHS CAPEX differential (delta) between BHS types (£917,684 vs £674,377).
- The short haul BHSs have the lowest Building CAPEX differential (delta) between BHS types (£1,133,206 vs £1,661,658)
- Has the least building area differential (delta) between BHS types (186m² vs 641m²)
- The short haul BHSs has the greatest BHS CAPEX (£9,001,527)
- The short haul BHSs has the greatest Building CAPEX (£10,175,703)
- The short haul BHSs has the greatest Building area requirement (3219m²)

The main cause of the heightened sensitivity of the WLCC ranking (first, second or third place) when processing short haul traffic only can, in part, be explained by the fact that for short haul BHS solutions, typically the building CAPEX cost differential is least between BHS build types. In the cases observed in Figure 64, and Figure 65, the building CAPEX cost delta between BHS types is £1,133,206 with the short haul BHS solution, whereas it is £1,661,658 with the long haul BHS solutions¹¹⁰. This in turn reduces the WLCC NPV delta in part, witnessed between manual, semi-automated, and fully automated BHS solutions. If the WLCC NPV delta margin between the BHS type solutions is smaller so it follows that when the high and low CAPEX factor sensitivities are applied this will then more easily change the WLCC ranking position.

¹¹⁰ Note: This is true for base case test sensitivity scenario processing 2340bags/hour

One must remember that the WLCC NPV is also a product of operating cost, and also that there are significantly large cost differentials in the BHS equipment costs that are selected by the model. These variables are taken into account in this analysis of the WLCC NPV ranking.

Figure 64: Report A: Short haul only BHSs for 2340 bags/hour throughput
input parameters

Code C & D (short haul) aircraft per hour	13	
Code E Plus (long haul) aircraft per hour	0	
Country CAPEX factor	0.59	
Staff cost factor	0.59	
Inflation rate per annum	3% PA	
Staff work/build rate	2bags/minute	
Output		
BHS Capacity/Demand	2340	Bags/Hour
BHS CAPEX (Option A: Fully Automatic BHS)	£9,001,527	
BHS CAPEX (Option B: Semi-automatic BHS)	£8,366,316	
BHS CAPEX (Option C: Manual BHS)	£8,083,843	
Building CAPEX (Option A: Fully Automatic BHS)	£10,175,703	
Building CAPEX (Option B: Semi-automatic BHS)	£9,954,325	
Building CAPEX (Option C: Manual BHS)	£9,042,497	
BHS OPEX (2020) - (Option A: Fully-automatic BHS)	£5,595,303	
BHS OPEX (2020) - (Option B: Semi-automatic BHS)	£5,793,987	
BHS OPEX (2020) - (Option C: Manual BHS)	£5,793,987	
BHS & Building Whole Life Cycle Cost (Option A: Fully Automatic BHS)	(£24,926,324.)	
BHS Whole Life Cycle Cost (Option B: Semi-automatic BHS))	(£22,913,271.)	
BHS Whole Life Cycle Cost (Option C: Manual BHS)	(£23,256,412.)	
BHS Area Required (Option A: Fully Automatic BHS)	3,219	m2
BHS Area Required (Option B: Semi-automatic BHS)	3,158	m2
BHS Area Required (Option C: Manual BHS)	3,033	m2
Recommended Solution (WLCC NPV)	Semi-automatic	BHS

Figure 65: Report B: Long haul only BHSs for 2340 bags/hour throughput

input parameters

Code C & D (short haul) Aircraft Per Hour	0
Code E Plus (long haul) Aircraft Per Hour	5
Cost Per Bag Processed	1
Country CAPEX Factor	0.59
Staff Cost factor	0.59
Inflation Rate %	3% PA
Staff work/build rate	2bags/minute
BHS Capacity/Demand	2340
Output	
BHS CAPEX (Option A: Fully Automatic BHS)	£8,609,207
BHS CAPEX (Option B: Semi-automatic BHS)	£7,973,997
BHS CAPEX (Option C: Manual BHS)	£7,934,830
Building CAPEX (Option A: Fully Automatic BHS)	£7,295,433
Building CAPEX (Option B: Semi-automatic BHS)	£7,074,055
Building CAPEX (Option C: Manual BHS)	£8,735,713
BHS OPEX (2020) - (Option A: Fully Automatic BHS)	£5,479,666
BHS OPEX (2020) - (Option B: Semi-automatic BHS)	£5,733,800
BHS OPEX (2020) - (Option C: Manual BHS)	£5,733,800
BHS & Building Whole Life Cycle Cost (Option A: Fully Automatic BHS)	(£20,168,264)
BHS Whole Life Cycle Cost (Option B: Semi-automatic BHS))	(£18,155,210)
BHS Whole Life Cycle Cost (Option C: Manual BHS)	(£22,197,085)
BHS Area Required (Option A: Fully Automatic BHS)	2,350 m ²
BHS Area Required (Option B: Semi-automatic BHS)	2,289 m ²
BHS Area Required (Option C: Manual BHS)	2,930 m ²
Recommended Solution (WLCC NPV)	Semi-Automatic BHS

Table 10, and Table 11 show no change in ranking when the sensitivities factors are applied. The introduction of long haul traffic reduces the impact of the test sensitivities when they are applied in the experiments.

With reference to Table 10 it is apparent that when processing only long haul traffic, and the experiment sensitivities are applied, that this did not change the WLCC NPV ranking of the BHS solution types. Similarly it can be observed in Table 11 that when a 50% component of short haul traffic is included, and the experiment sensitivities are applied that the result is that these had no impact upon the resultant WLCC NPV rankings.

Table 10: Effect of test sensitivities upon BHS WLCC NPV relative to base conditions for long haul traffic

<u>Sensitivity</u>	<u>WLCC NPV Ranking</u>		
	<u>First place Lowest</u>	<u>Second place</u>	<u>Third place Highest</u>
Base	Semi-automatic	Fully automatic	Manual
High CAPEX	Semi-automatic	Fully automatic	Manual
Low CAPEX	Semi-automatic	Fully automatic	Manual
High OPEX	Semi-automatic	Fully automatic	Manual
Low OPEX	Semi-automatic	Fully Automatic	Manual
High inflation	Semi-automatic	Fully automatic	Manual
Low inflation	Semi-automatic	Fully automatic	Manual
High staff loading rate	Semi-automatic	Fully automatic	Manual
Low staff loading rate	Semi-automatic	Fully automatic	Manual

Table 11: Effect of test sensitivities upon BHS WLCC NPV relative to base conditions for long / short haul mix of traffic

<u>Sensitivity</u>	<u>WLCC NPV Ranking</u>		
	<u>First place Lowest</u>	<u>Second place</u>	<u>Third place Highest</u>
Base	Semi-automatic	Fully automatic	Manual
High CAPEX	Semi-automatic	Fully automatic	Manual
Low CAPEX	Semi-automatic	Fully automatic	Manual
High OPEX	Semi-automatic	Fully automatic	Manual
Low OPEX	Semi-automatic	Fully Automatic	Manual
High inflation	Semi-automatic	Fully automatic	Manual
Low inflation	Semi-automatic	Fully automatic	Manual
High staff loading rate	Semi-automatic	Fully automatic	Manual
Low staff loading rate	Semi-automatic	Fully automatic	Manual

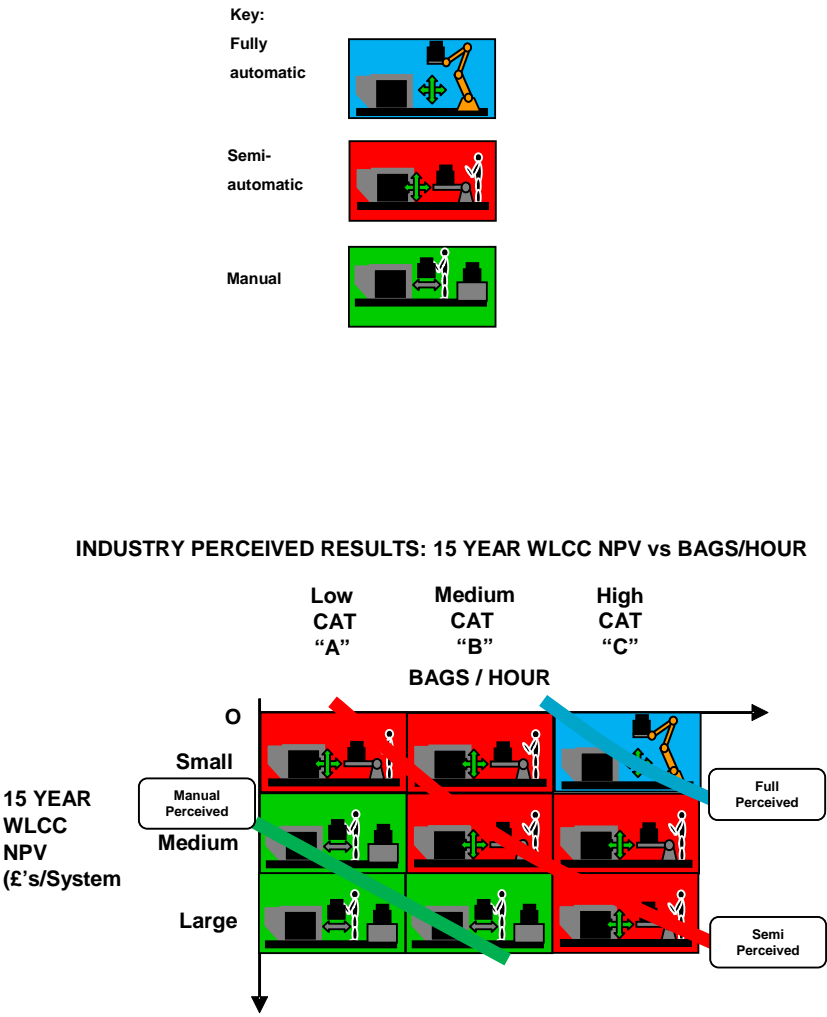
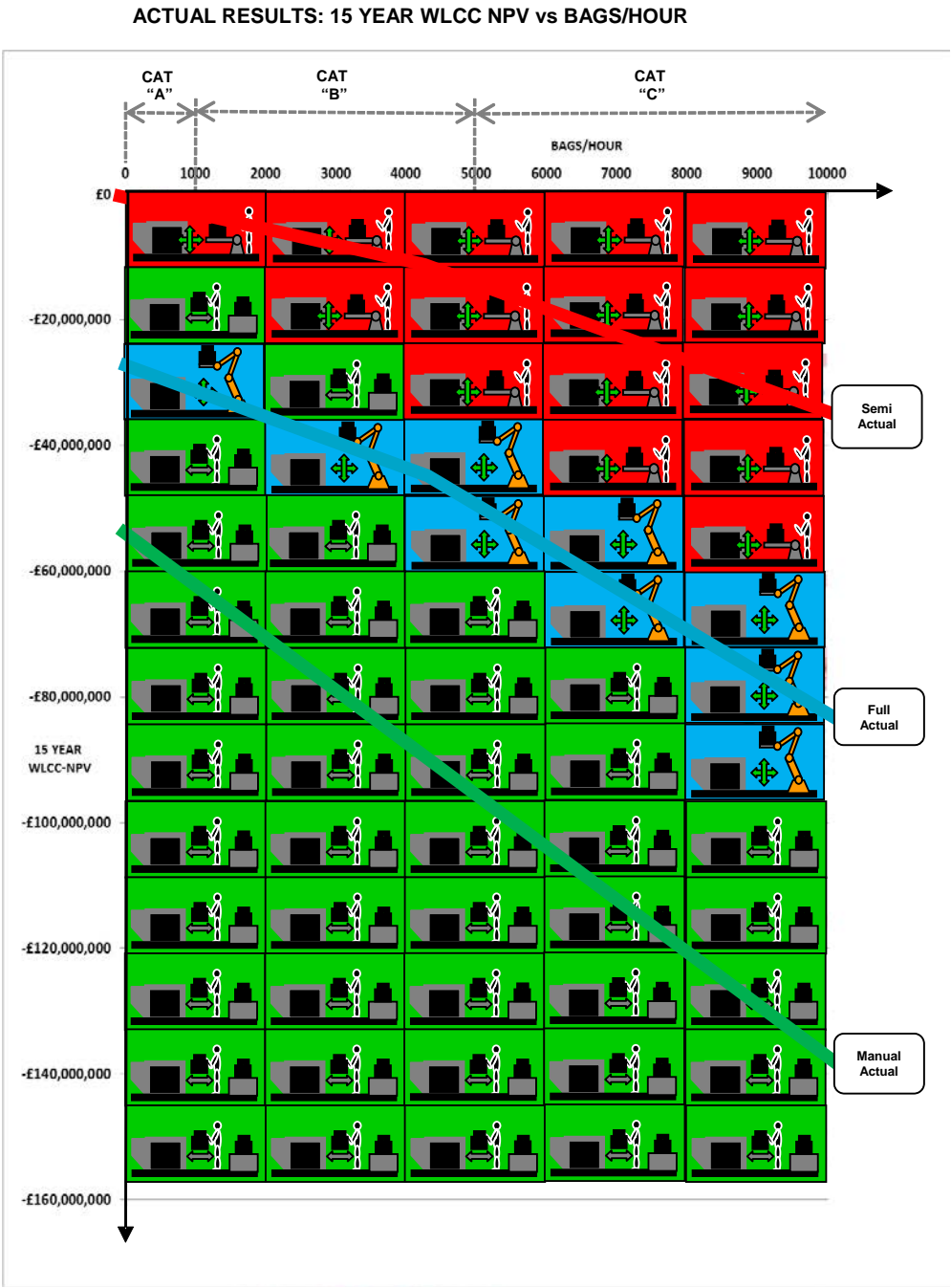
7.8 Chapter summary

It can be seen in this Chapter that the ranking position of the various BHS solutions does change as the model is subjected to different test sensitivities. The results show that the CAPEX and OPEX values will naturally change as the various test sensitivities are applied, which in turn lead to WLCC NPV changes, which are obviously of prime importance; it is equally significant to note the relative change that can occur in WLCC NPV ranking when the test sensitivities are applied, which is outlined in Table 9, Table 10, and Table 11. The WLCC NPV of all of the test sensitivities has been captured in the scatter diagram seen in Figure 63; this contains the essential poly line plots for each of the BHS solution types.

At the start of the PhD research stage an estimate was made as to where to place the three BHS flight build technology groups, within the framework of a bags/hour vs

WLCC NPV metric; this unsubstantiated view was defined and recorded within “Figure 2: Pre-investigation industry view”. Following the conclusion of the PhD study Figure 2 should be replaced by the factually correct Figure 66. This shows the placement of three flight build technologies within a technology capacity resolution of 2000bags/hour processing capability, and a 15 year life period WLCC NPV financial resolution of GB£12,500,000.

Figure 66: Actual model graphical output conclusion¹¹¹



¹¹¹ This figure shows all the WLCC NPV results using all of sensitivities scenarios denoted in the following input parameters as is the accurate equivalent to that estimated in Figure 2.
19% - 59% - 110% CAPEX factor applied
19% - 59% - 110% OPEX factor applied
1% - 3% - 7% inflation applied
1 - 2 - 3 bags/min loading rate

8. CONCLUSION

8.1 Thesis conclusions

This Chapter draws a conclusion from the literature review. The influence that the assumptions, stated in Section 5.5, had upon the results obtained from the model is also examined, and concluded. Finally this Chapter draws conclusions on the main observations noted in Chapter 7, and suggests further alternative avenues of investigation that could be of benefit to the aviation industry.

8.1.1 Uniqueness of research aim

It is clear from the literature review explained in Chapter 2 that this PhD is indeed unique, and the area of investigation detailed herein have not previously been examined or documented before the submission date of this thesis.

The findings denoted herein shall add considerable value to the aviation industry that are about to develop a BHS, as this PhD provides clear commercial ranking of the BHS solution types that are on offer to airport operators. It also provides the airline industry a detailed appreciation of what happens to the WLCC NPV ranking, when the test sensitivities are applied.

8.1.2 Commercial ranking of BHS build types

With reference to Figure 63, the WLCC NPV scatter diagram, and the poly line plots for each BHS solution, it is clear that when simultaneously taking into account all test sensitivities, that the semi-automated BHS WLCC NPV is ranked the least expensive solution for airports, and airlines to select. For category A, B and C BHSs, between

zero and 4000bags/hour, the manual BHS solution type is ranked the second cheapest WLCC NPV, and the fully automatic BHS solution type is ranked third, the most expensive solution type. These second and third rankings are switched when the BHS is required to process more than 4000bags/hour.

8.1.3 Commercially best BHS for short haul operation

From Table 9 it can be seen that for short haul operations, that the semi-automatic build BHS solutions are more likely to provide the lowest WLCC NPV. The manual BHS solutions generally have the second cheapest WLCC NPV. The fully automatic BHS solution type will always be the most expensive.

8.1.4 Commercially best BHS for long haul operations

From Table 10 it can be seen that for long haul operations, that the semi-automatic build solution will always produce the lowest WLCC NPV. The fully automatic BHS solution type is the second cheapest always, and the manual build BHS type will always be the most expensive.

8.1.5 Commercially best BHS for long haul / short haul mix operations

From Table 11 it can be seen that for long haul / short mix operations, that the semi-automatic build BHS solutions will always produce the lowest WLCC NPV. Fully automatic BHS are the second cheapest from a WLCC NPV perspective, and the manual BHS are the most expensive.

8.2 The Robotic vs RTT staffing comparison

This section defines the general staffing level efficiencies that can be seen with the deployment of fully automatic build, and semi-automatic flight build technologies for a given set of input demand flow rates of baggage.

Table 12: Robotic and RTT component staffing levels vs demand (Bags/Minute)

<u>Component</u> <u>Ref.</u>	<u>Flight</u> <u>Build</u> <u>Unit</u>	<u>Unit Capacity</u> <u>Bags/Min</u>	<u>Staff Per Unit</u>	<u>Demand Bags/Min</u>			
				<u>10.00</u>	<u>50.00</u>	<u>75.00</u>	<u>100.00</u>
				<u>Number of staff Required</u>			
g1	Robots	4.00	0.50	1.25	6.25	9.38	12.50
g2	RTT	6.00	1.00	1.67	8.33	12.50	16.67

It can be seen from Table 12 that the number of staff needed to supervise, and top up the robotic fully automatic (component g1) build is always less than the staff needed to operate the semi-automated RTT (component g2). This factor has been taken into account within the model, and considered within the overall OPEX, and WLCC NPV calculations. Whilst the robotic BHSs require less staff, it is the BHS solutions that contain the RTT component g2 that generally provide a lower WLCC NPV. This affect is attributed to:

- (i) The additional quantity of supporting conveyors needed to make the Robotic solution function;
- (ii) The difference in area between the two types of technology, and the resultant affect this has upon building capital cost, and building OPEX;
- (iii) The elevated capital cost of the Robotic component g1 verses g2. The robotic component g1 is approximately seven times more expensive than the RTT component g2.

The key findings contained within the thesis are based on the fundamental assumption that the RTT operators work consistently at the rate stipulated within Chapter 3. In reality staff performance will vary considerably from day to day, and from operator to operator; the robotic fully automated build component is a component with a known constant performance. That performance can be considered to be a constant 24 hours a day seven days a week.

8.3 Bag charges

Throughout all of the experiments carried out, a nominal £1 per bag processed, bag charge was levied, albeit varied by the OPEX factor. The £1/bag processing charge will vary in reality, and often airports may try to recover the actual full OPEX running costs of the BHS using this charge. Since the WLCC NPV cost is extremely sensitive to variations in bag charge, changing the bag charge would have a significant impact on the resultant WLCC NPVs notified within the results seen in Appendix H.

8.4 Scatter diagram limitations

The scatter diagram seen in Figure 63 is a good reference for airports, and for airlines that are about to embark on developing a BHS, and a baggage system building. It can be used to aid the capital planning process where the correct (quarter 4 2011) prices of the various technologies are defined. Furthermore the 15 year WLCC NPVs provide an insight into the 15 year combined capital and operational costs.

It should be noted that the scatter diagram should be read with care. The poly line plots, explained in Chapter 7, are a summation of all of the test sensitivities. If an airport operator, or an airline have a clear understanding of the regional test sensitivity

factors that are present at the developing airport, then the reader of this thesis should refer to the results, noted in Chapter 6, that were obtained using airport specific factors that best match the test sensitivities factors. This will lead the airport operator or airline to select the most effective solution, taking into account the closest match of test sensitivities.

8.5 Health and safety issues

The aim of this thesis is to concentrate on the commercial aspects that relate to the performance, and ultimate WLCC NPV of the three flight build technologies. This PhD does not address the health and safety issues that are being presented by national bodies for the loading of baggage into ULD and baggage cart containers (e.g. mandates set by the UK Health and Safety Executive etc...). Irrespective of the commercial position of the three flight build technologies, airports, airlines, and ground handling agents maybe required to install at least the semi-automated BHS technologies, on the basis that these technologies can reduce injuries to operators. There are alternative semi-automated technologies that exist, other than the stated RTT LONGREACH™ mechanized bag build component g2 unit.

The semi-automated technology assessed in this PhD overall is ranked as the most commercially viable solution. This technology may become the minimum entry level technology for airports to use to build flights in the not too distant future, and can provide positive health and safety characteristics for the operators that use it. That said the literature review did not reveal any studies done by airports to assess the health and safety performance of semi-automated flight build technologies that can be used for prolonged periods. This would be a useful separate investigation.

8.6 Thesis recommendations

This section recommends what airport operators, airlines, and ground handling agents should do with the findings of this thesis, and what further studies could be considered.

8.6.1 Generate 2D and 3D design models

The data from the model could be developed into a commercial design model linked to a computer aided design software interface. This would allow the model to generate not only commercial, and technical specifications, as seen in Appendix H, but also to create accurate 2D, and 3D drawings of the proposals for use within architectural, and engineering design plans.

8.6.2 Break-even analysis

It could be useful to airlines, and to airport operators to provide an extended set of results that show the consequence of changing the bag charge from the stated nominal £1/bag processed rate. This would likely not change the commercial rankings of the alternative BHS build types, and arguably add any further value to meeting the PhD aim, but would show the User Group, and the Specialist Group the breakeven positions, and the true bag charge needed for any specific BHS development.

8.6.3 Scatter diagram and actual graphical output conclusion

Airport operators and airlines that are about to embark on developing a BHS should first refer to the results contained in Chapter 6, the scatter diagram seen in Figure 63, and the actual graphic conclusion diagram seen in Figure 66. This information shall inform which technologies best matches the commercial, and operational

requirements of that airport location, for any given size of airport BHS development, IATA (2004) Category A, B, and C BHSs.

The scatter diagram (Figure 63) and the actual graphic conclusion diagram seen in (Figure 66), will be used both the User Group, and the Specialist Group to determine the most cost effective BHS solution to select for the specific location. From Figure 66 it can be seen that generally the lowest WLCC NPV will be achieved with the semi-automatic BHSs, this will lead airports to use this technology more and more; the ramifications of this will be that this technology will reduce staff levels and in turn operating costs for the User Group.

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X. APPENDICES

APPENDIX A PROCESS DEFINITION

A1 Referenced BHS processes and rules

This Appendix provides an explanation of the processes, and rules that are referenced, and programmed into the model software. The detail contained herein defines the overall process blocks that are present within manual, semi-automatic, and fully automatic baggage handling systems, and the equipment selection and utilisation rules that are present within the model.

Figure 67, Figure 70, and Figure 73 define the overview level design process maps that relate to the manual, semi-automatic and fully automatic build BHS design that are referenced within the assembly environment worksheet of the model.

Figure 68, Figure 71, and Figure 74 define the detailed level design process maps that relate to the manual, semi-automatic and fully automatic build BHS design that are referenced within the assembly environment worksheet.

Both the overview and detailed level process maps have been derived from processes seen within Chapter U of the IATA (2004) best practice documentation, and process maps obtained from BHS consultants and suppliers. These companies have produced many of the BHSs that have been put into operation over the last 30 years.

X. APPENDICES**APPENDIX A PROCESS DEFINITION CONTINUED**

The overview level process maps explain the main building blocks that are contained within the manual, semi-automatic, and fully automatic BHSs. These blocks include (i) check-in, (ii) delivery, (iii) HBS, EBS, and (iv) flight sortation. The overview level process maps also define the equipment and bag hall people groups that are incorporated within the model, such as (i) baggage conveyors; (ii) ULD storage systems, (iii) Power systems, (iv) IT, (v) handling agent, and (vi) support steelwork systems that are employed.

The detailed level process maps explain, for the manual, semi-automatic and fully automatic BHSs, the relationship between the process blocks, when deployed in series, and when they are deployed in parallel. In particular the detailed level process blocks explain the contingency routes, and links that are needed between the series and parallel process blocks. These links are then grouped into zones A, B and C as defined in Figure 68, Figure 71, and Figure 74.

The assembly environment worksheet assembles the correct quantity of components (Figure 8 through to Figure 25 inclusive) that are needed to construct a manual BHS, semi-automated BHS, and a fully automated BHS. Each type (manual/semi-automatic/fully automatic) of BHS is constructed differently. The quantity and type of components that are used within each zone are specified in the tables provided in Figure 69, Figure 72, and Figure 75.

X. APPENDICES**APPENDIX A PROCESS DEFINITION CONTINUED**

Zone A defines the components needed between the Check-in and the Delivery line process blocks.

Zone B defines the components needed between the Delivery line and HBS process blocks.

Zone C defines the components needed between the HBS block and the Flight sortation process blocks.

A2 Manual BHS rules set example

For example, in Figure 17 the component e7 (Merge VSU) unit is used in zones A, B and C. The model needs to determine the quantity of e7 units in these zones to complete that part of the design. In zone A the quantity of Merge VSU conveyors needed between the check-in process block, and the delivery line process block is defined by the rule: If the number (#) of delivery lines “b1” is less than 2 then the number (#) of merge VSUs needed is equal to 0. If the number of delivery lines is 2 or more then the quantity of merge VSUs needed is equal to the number (#) of delivery lines present minus the numeric value 1. So if the quantity of delivery lines equals two then the number VSUs needed in zone A equal one.

Figure 17 defines the BHS rules for the use of components e7 (Merge VSU), e9 (Divert VSU), e10 (Indexing), e11 (Sortation induct), e12 (Sortation loop) and f2 (ULD Powered Rollerbed) in the interconnecting zones A, B and C within a manual BHS.

X. APPENDICES**APPENDIX A PROCESS DEFINITION CONTINUED****A3 Semi-automatic BHS rules set example**

For example within Figure 19 the component e10 (Indexing conveyor assembly) is used in zones A, B, and C.

In zone B the quantity of e10 units is defined by the rule that for each HBS line (component d1) there is a need to provide five e10 indexing conveyor assemblies.

Figure 72 defines the BHS rules for the use of components e7 (Merge VSU), e9 (Divert VSU), e10 (Indexing), e11 (Sortation induct), e12 (Sortation loop), and f2 (ULD Powered Rollerbed) in the interconnecting zones A, B and C within a semi-automatic BHS.

A4 Fully automatic BHS rules set example

For example the component f2 (ULD Powered Rollerbed) is not used in zones A and B, but is used in zone C only.

In zone C the quantity of f2 units (three ULD sub assembly) that are required within the model is defined by the rule that for every g1 (Automatic ULD Build) robot assembly, there is a need to provide three ULDs holding spaces, coupled to five ULD lead in spaces, and five system exit ULD spaces. In addition to this to calculate the total quantity of ULDs needed, described by the component f2, the equations (14, 15 and 16) are used. This, in part, states that for every Code C flight processed per hour, there is a need to provide 10 ULDs, and for every Code F flight processed per hour, there is a need to provide 20 ULDs.

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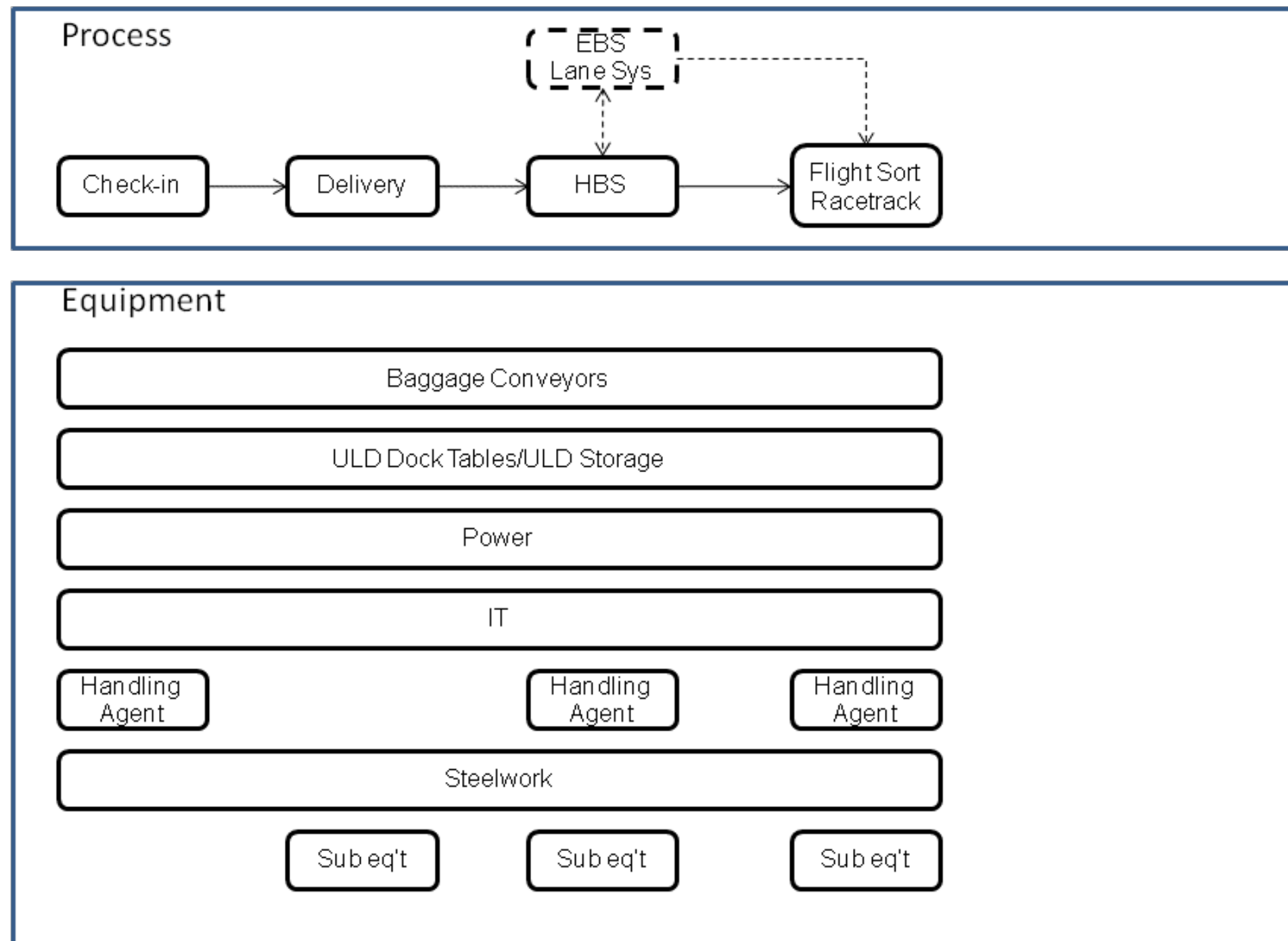
APPENDIX A PROCESS DEFINITION CONTINUED

Figure 75, defines the BHS rules for the use of components, e7 (Merge VSU), e9 (Divert VSU), e10 (Indexing), e11 (Sortation induct), e12 (Sortation loop), and f2 (ULD Powered Rollerbed) in the interconnecting zones A, B and C within a fully-automatic BHS.

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APPENDIX A PROCESS DEFINITION CONTINUED

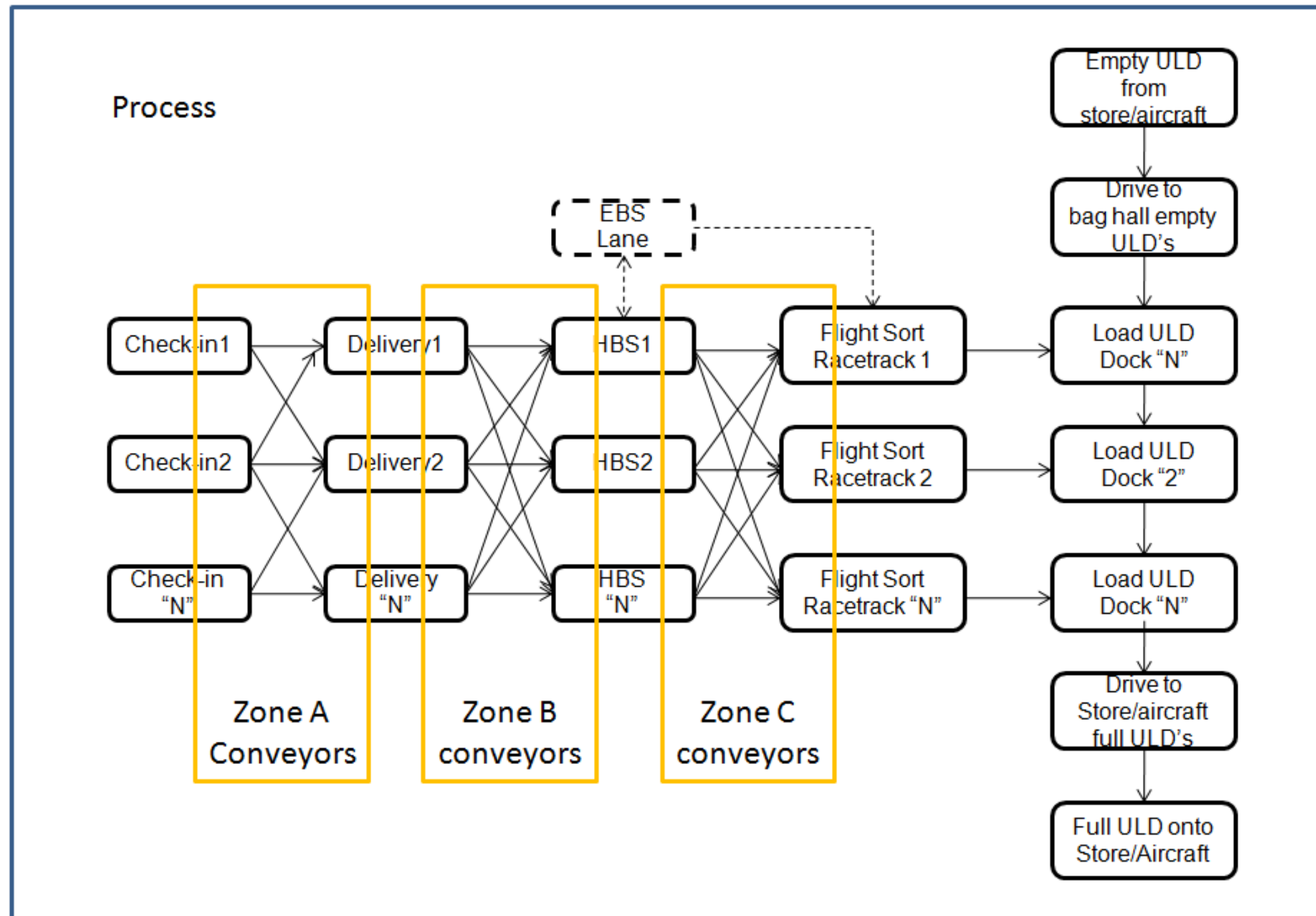
Figure 67: Process Maps Overview Level: Manual System



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APPENDIX A PROCESS DEFINITION CONTINUED

Figure 68: Process Maps Detailed Level: Manual System



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APPENDIX A PROCESS DEFINITION CONTINUED

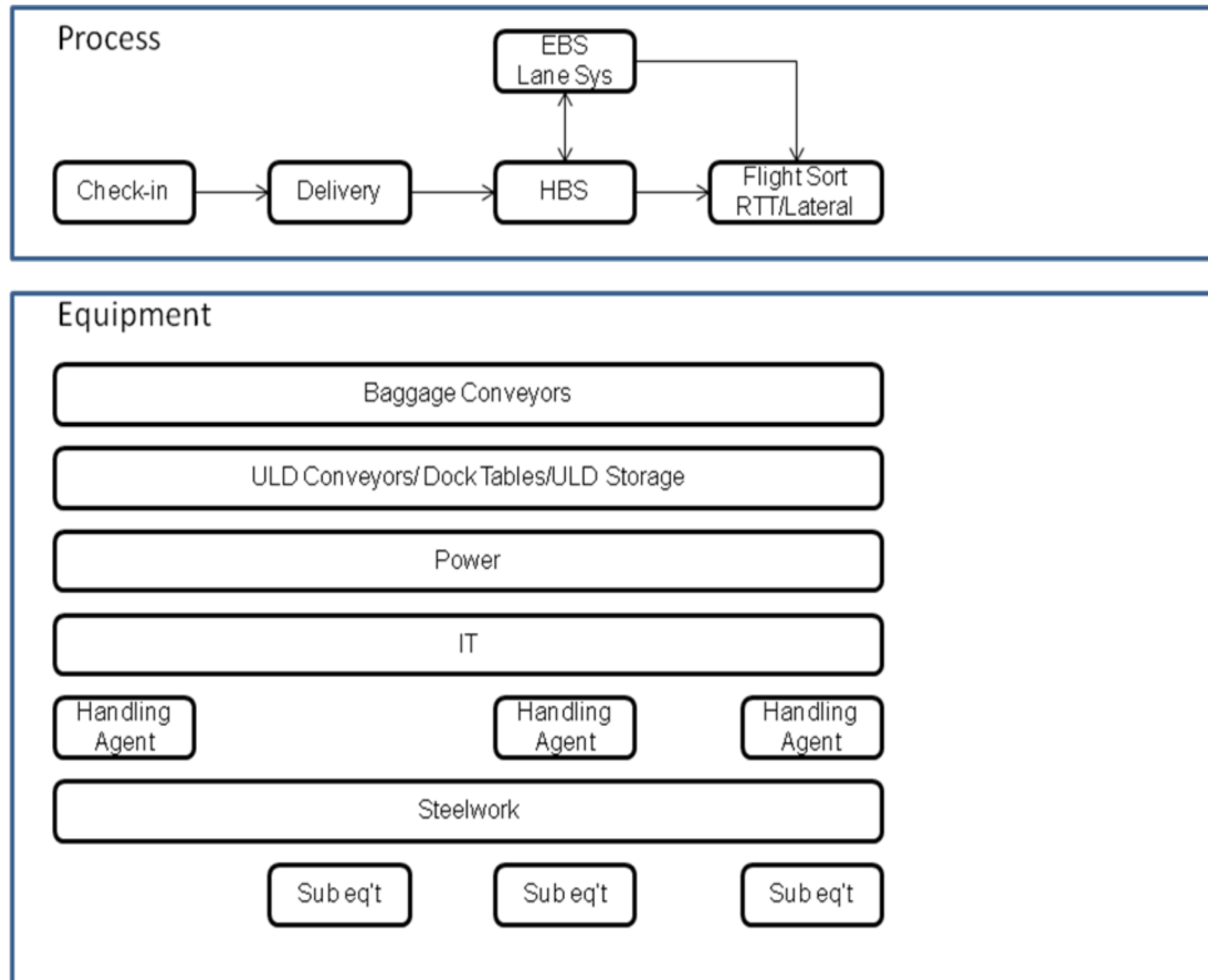
Figure 69: Manual build Link conveyor supply rules

Flight sortation	Description	Zone A conveyors Between check-in and delivery lines	Zone B conveyors Between delivery lines and HBS	Zone C conveyors Between HBS and Flight sortation
e7	Merge VSU	If # of delivery lines "b1" < 2 then # of merge VSU needed = 0, else # or merge VSU needed = # of delivery lines present minus 1	If # of HBS "d1" < 2 then # of merge VSU needed = 0, else # or merge VSU needed = # of HBS lines present minus 1	If # of racetracks "e3" < 2 then # of merge VSU needed = 0, else # of merge VSU needed = # of racetracks present minus 1
e9	Divert VSU	If # of delivery lines "b1" < 2 then # of divert VSU needed = 0, else # or divert VSU needed = # of delivery lines present minus 1	If # of HBS "d1" < 2 then # of divert VSU needed = 0, else # or divert VSU needed = # of HBS lines present minus 1	If # of racetracks "e3" < 2 then # of divert VSU needed = 0, else # of divert VSU needed = # of racetracks present minus 1
e10	Indexing	Each Delivery line "b1" will have 5 Queuing indexing conveyors	Each HBS line "d1" will have 5 Queuing indexing conveyors	Each racetrack "e3" will have 5 Queuing indexing conveyors
e11	Sortation induct	Each Delivery line "b1" will have 0 sortation induct conveyors	Each HBS line "d1" will have 0 sortation induct conveyors	Each racetrack "e3" will have 1 Queuing induct conveyor
e12	Sortation loop	Each Delivery line "b1" will have 0 sortation loop conveyors	Each HBS line "d1" will have 0 sortation loop conveyors	Sortation loop length = 3m per lateral needed x # of laterals needed x both sides of loop (e.g. x2) plus Radius 5m turns.
f2	ULD Powered Rollerbed (1x2m rollerbed)	Not applicable	Not applicable	Storage Needed Code C 10ULDs/Flight Code F 20ULDs/Flight

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APPENDIX A PROCESS DEFINITION CONTINUED

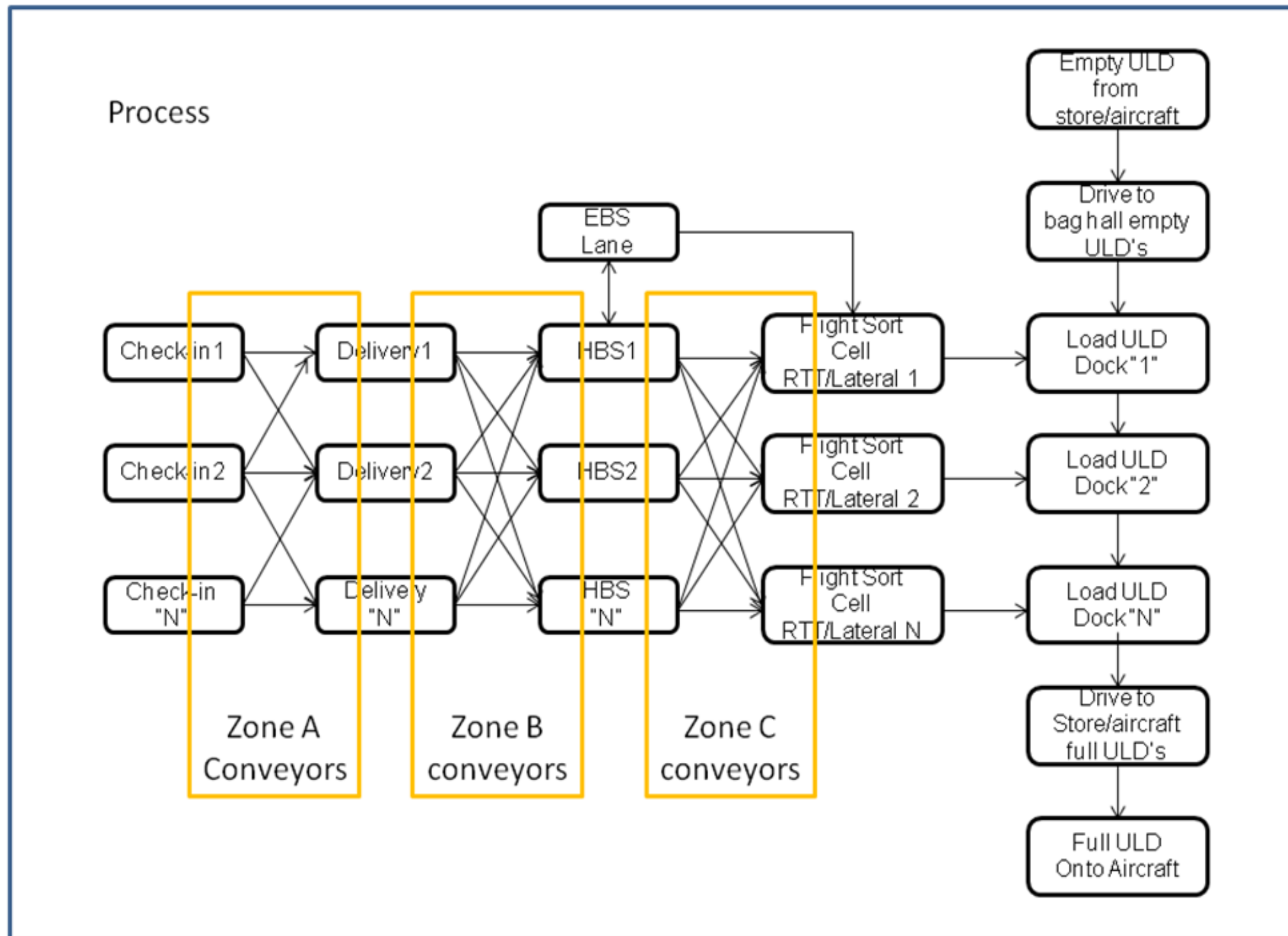
Figure 70: Process Maps Overview Level: Semi-automated



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APPENDIX A PROCESS DEFINITION CONTINUED

Figure 71: Process Maps Detailed Level: Semi-automated



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APPENDIX A PROCESS DEFINITION CONTINUED

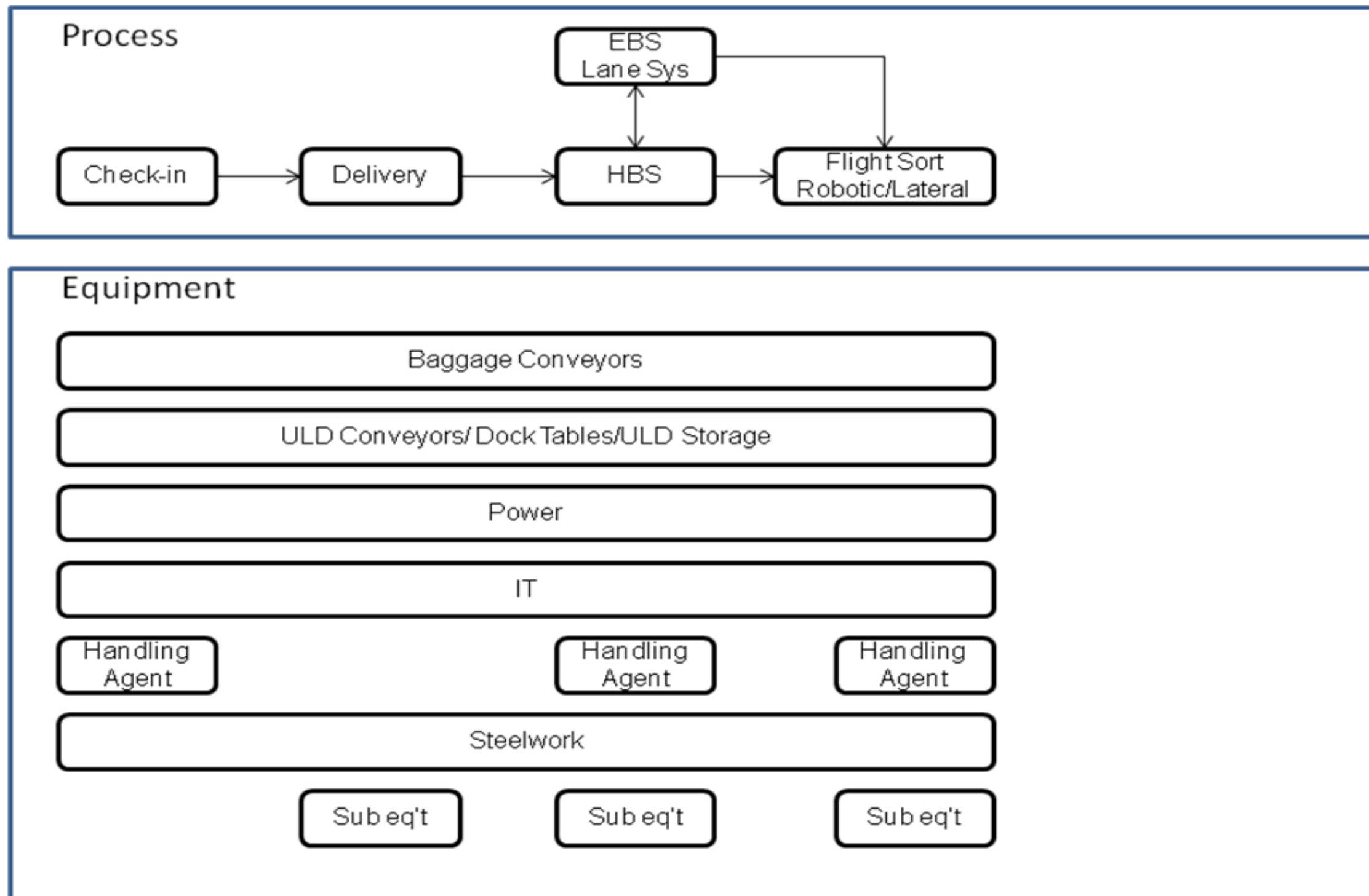
Figure 72: Semi-automated build Link conveyor supply rules

Flight sortation	Description	Zone A conveyors Between check-in and delivery lines	Zone B conveyors Between delivery lines and HBS	Zone C conveyors Between HBS and Flight sortation
e7	Merge VSU	If # of delivery lines "b1" < 2 then # of merge VSU needed = 0, else # or merge VSU needed = # of delivery lines present minus 1	If # of HBS "d1" < 2 then # of merge VSU needed = 0, else # or merge VSU needed = # of HBS lines present minus 1	If # of RTT "g2" < 2 then # of merge VSU needed = 0, else # of merge VSU needed = # of RTT present minus 1
e9	Divert VSU	If # of delivery lines "b1" < 2 then # of divert VSU needed = 0, else # or divert VSU needed = # of delivery lines present minus 1	If # of HBS "d1" < 2 then # of divert VSU needed = 0, else # or divert VSU needed = # of HBS lines present minus 1	If # of RTT "g2" < 2 then # of divert VSU needed = 0, else # of divert VSU needed = # of RTT present minus 1
e10	Indexing	Each Delivery line "b1" will have 5 Queuing indexing conveyors	Each HBS line "d1" will have 5 Queuing indexing conveyors	Each RTT "g2" will have 40 Bell Cell Preparation Queuing indexing conveyors
e11	Sortation induct	Each Delivery line "b1" will have 0 sortation induct conveyors	Each HBS line "d1" will have 0 sortation induct conveyors	Each RTT "g2" will have 1 Queuing induct conveyor
e12	Sortation loop	Each Delivery line "b1" will have 0 sortation loop conveyors	Each HBS line "d1" will have 0 sortation loop conveyors	Sortation loop length = 3m per RTT/lateral needed x # of RTT's needed x both sides of loop (e.g. x2) plus Radius 5m turns.
f2	ULD Powered Rollerbed (1x2m rollerbed)	Not applicable	Not applicable	For every RTT there is 2 ULDs spaces and 5 Lead in spaces and 5 exit spaces Total 12ULD/RTT Storage Needed Code C 10ULDs/Flight Code F 20ULDs/Flight

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APPENDIX A PROCESS DEFINITION CONTINUED

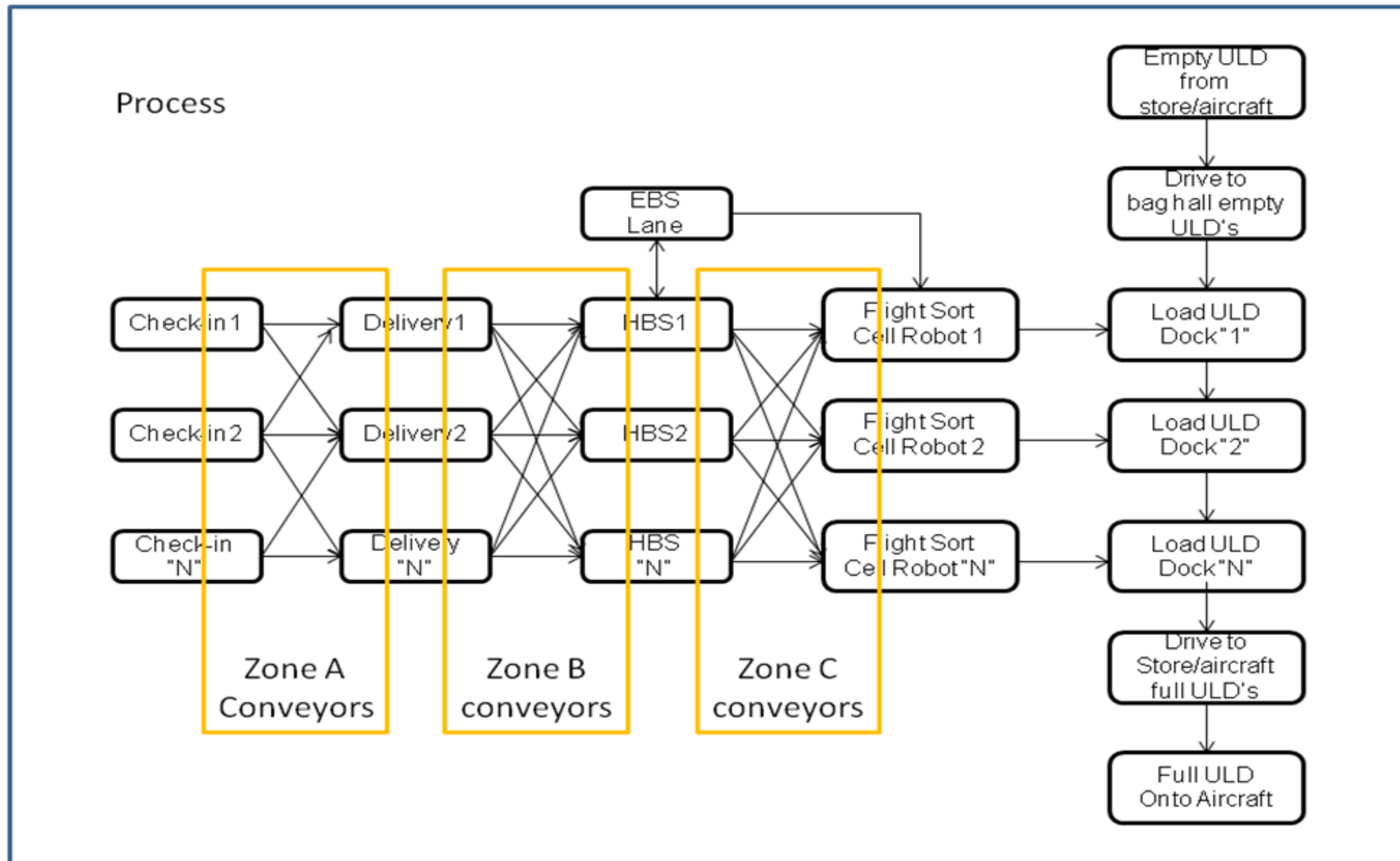
Figure 73: Process Maps Overview Level: Fully automated



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APPENDIX A PROCESS DEFINITION CONTINUED

Figure 74: Process Maps Detailed Level: Fully automated



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APPENDIX A PROCESS DEFINITION CONTINUED

Figure 75: Fully automated build Link conveyor supply rules

Flight sortation	Description	Zone A conveyors Between check-in and delivery lines	Zone B conveyors Between delivery lines and HBS	Zone C conveyors Between HBS and Flight sortation
e7	Merge VSU	If # of delivery lines "b1" < 2 then # of merge VSU needed = 0, else # or merge VSU needed = # of delivery lines present minus 1	If # of HBS "d1" < 2 then # of merge VSU needed = 0, else # or merge VSU needed = # of HBS lines present minus 1	If # of Robot "g1" < 2 then # of merge VSU needed = 0, else # of Robots present minus 1
e9	Divert VSU	If # of delivery lines "b1" < 2 then # of divert VSU needed = 0, else # or divert VSU needed = # of delivery lines present minus 1	If # of HBS "d1" < 2 then # of divert VSU needed = 0, else # or divert VSU needed = # of HBS lines present minus 1	If # of Robots "g1" < 2 then # of divert VSU needed = 0, else # of Robots present minus 1
e10	Indexing	Each Delivery line "b1" will have 5 Queuing indexing conveyors	Each HBS line "d1" will have 5 Queuing indexing conveyors	Each Robot "g1" will have 40 Build Cell Preparation Queuing indexing conveyors
e11	Sortation induct	Each Delivery line "b1" will have 0 sortation induct conveyors	Each HBS line "d1" will have 0 sortation induct conveyors	Each Robot "g1" will have 1 Queuing induct conveyor
e12	Sortation loop	Each Delivery line "b1" will have 0 sortation loop conveyors	Each HBS line "d1" will have 0 sortation loop conveyors	Sortation loop length = 3m per Robot /lateral needed x # of Robot's needed x both sides of loop (e.g. x2) plus Radius 5m turns.
f2	ULD Powered Rollerbed (1x2m rollerbed)	Not applicable	Not applicable	For every Robot there is 3 ULDs spaces and 5 Lead in spaces and 5 exit spaces Total 12ULD/Robot Storage Needed Code C 10ULDs/Flight Code F 20ULDs/Flight

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APPENDIX B INPUT VARIABLES WORKSHEET

Flight Schedule				Output Data Calculated		
Input Data						
			5800	Pax/hour		
			6600	Bags/hour		
			0%	% Maximum Peaking Factor		
			£1.00	Bag Charge Per Bag Processed		
Item	Input Variables		Used Parameter	Units	Data Source	
1	INPUT: Declared Bag to Pax Ratio (average Long Haul)		1.2	bags/pax	IATA: Airport Development Reference Manual Table C2-1	
2	INPUT: Declared Bag to Pax Ratio (average Short Haul)		4	bags/pax	IATA: Airport Development Reference Manual Table C2-1	
3	INPUT: Declared number of LH flights in peak hour		10	flights Long Haul/hour		
4	INPUT: Declared number of SH flights in peak hour		10	flights Short Haul/hour		
5	INPUT: Point A Aircraft Brakes on time LONG HAUL relative to STD		180	STD[minutes] long haul		
6	INPUT: Point A Aircraft Brakes on time SHORT HAUL relative to STD		60	STD[minutes] short haul		
7	INPUT: A-B (LONG HAUL) Unload FULL ULD – from inbound aircraft		22.5	CODE D Time [minutes]		
8	INPUT: A-B (SHORT HAUL) Unload FULL carts – from inbound aircraft		14	CODE C Time [minutes]		
9	INPUT: B-C Drive FULL ULD/carts from aircraft to baggage hall		5	Time [minutes]		
10	INPUT: C-D Unload FULL ULD/carts at arrivals / transfer input docks		1.5	Time [minutes]		
11	INPUT: E-F Drive FULL ULD's/carts to aircraft		5	Time [minutes]		
12	INPUT: F-G Load FULL ULD's onto aircraft Long Haul		22.5	CODE D Time [minutes]		
13	INPUT: F-G Load FULL cart contents onto aircraft Short Haul		14	CODE C Time [minutes]		
14	INPUT: Declared Pax Load/Flight (Long Haul)		400	Pax/Long haul flight		
15	INPUT: Declared Pax Load/Flight (Short Haul)		180	Pax/Short haul flight		
16	Year Build / System Completed	N/A	2011	Year	Alex Bradley	
16a	Calculated inflation factor	N/A	1.3387	Factor	Source: UK Office for National Statistics	
17	INPUT CAPEX FACTOR	CAPEX FACTOR	0.59	Factor	IATA: Airport Development Reference Manual	
18	INPUT OPEX FACTOR	OPEX FACTOR	0.59	Factor	IATA: Airport Development Reference Manual (CAPEX Rates used as OPEX factor rates)	
19	Building Construction Type Used	Regional Terminal Building	2,209	£/m ²	IATA: Airport Development Reference Manual (Section D5 in 2003 prices)	
20		International Terminal Building	3,480	£/m ²	IATA: Airport Development Reference Manual (Section D5 in 2003 prices)	
21		Steel frame / cladding	3,254	£/m ²	Real airport cost plan (adjusted)	
22		Average actual rate used	£2,981	£/m ²	Calculated average	
23	Automation Loading Technology	Robotics Build Rate	4	Bags/Min	Alex Bradley AMS site visit to robotic BHS	
24		Manipulator Build Rate	6	Bags/Min	Alex Bradley Video of RTT in operation	
25		BHS Operator Build Rate	2	Bags/Min	IATA: US Carrier / Canadian Carrier	
26		Load safe	3	Bags/Min	Technical consultant: Mike Read	
27	Heating, ventilation and lighting, annual rate per annum	Building	£12	12	£/m2/annum	JBC: John Briggs Consultancy (Bag systems and building OPEX consultant Nov 2011)
28	Maintenance (Building), annual rate per annum	Building	£54	54	£/m2/annum	JBC: John Briggs Consultancy (Bag systems and building OPEX consultant Nov 2011)

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APPENDIX C EQUIPMENT DBASE WORKSHEET

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y
Ref ID	System Function	Sub System Technology	Length	Speed (m/s)/Rate	Window length	Time to move window	UNIT CAPACITY BAGS/MIN	Unit Plan Area m ²	Actual Power (kW)	Efficiency Factor	Rated installed Power (KW)	Simultaneous Diversity Factor	Actual Power Consumption (KW)	Allowance for Additional Demand	Resultant Power Consumption	Running Hours per Annum	Energy Consumption (KWh)	Unit Cost (£ per KWh)	Energy Cost	Maintenance Cost	KEY OUTPUT Unit Running OPEX Cost UK 2011	OPEX Running Cost £ PA	Capital Cost £ / Unit	Source Date	Freight Volume m ³	KEY OUTPUT Corrected 2011 Day Price £
															1.10											
a1	Check-in	Conventional Conveyor (3x1.2m assembly)	3.6	0.0134	1.2	89.55	0.67	5.40	2.25	0.8	2.8125	0.75	2.11	0.10	2.32	6570.00	15244.45	0.16	2446.73	£3,000.00	£ 5,446.73	£2,365.20	£12,125	2009	11	£ 13,481.34
b1	Delivery	Collector Belt (1x20m)	20	0.5000	1.2	2.40	25.00	30.00	5	0.80	6.25	0.75	4.69	0.10	5.16	6,570.00	33876.56	0.16	5437.19	£ 1,500.00	£ 6,937.19	£ 5,256.00	£6,185	2009	9.975	£ 6,877.08
b4		Powered Belt Curve	2.5	0.5000	1.2	2.40	25.00	4.91	1.5	0.80	1.875	0.75	1.41	0.10	154.69%	6,570.00	10162.97	0.16	1631.16	£ 2,000.00	£ 3,631.16	£ 1,576.80	£28,600	2009	6	£ 31,800.23
c1	Early Baggage Store	Conveyor Lane Q conveyors (1x1.2m)	1.2	1.0000	1.2	1.20	50.00	1.80	1.1	0.80	1.375	0.75	1.03	0.10	113.44%	6,570.00	7452.84	0.16	1196.18	£ 1,500.00	£ 2,696.18	£ 1,156.32	£3,000	2011		£ 3,000.00
d1	Hold Baggage Screening	Standard 2 Level 1 Unit	5	0.5000	1.5	3.00	20.00	25.00	7.5	0.80	9.375	0.75	7.03	0.10	773.44%	6,570.00	50814.84	0.16	8155.78	£ 21,000.00	£ 29,155.78	£ 7,884.00	£250,000	2011		£ 250,000.00
d2		Standard 2 Level 3 Unit	22.5	0.1000	1.5	15.00	4.00	33.75	7.5	0.80	9.375	0.75	7.03	0.10	773.44%	6,570.00	50814.84	0.16	8155.78	£ 54,000.00	£ 62,155.78	£ 7,884.00	£750,000	2011		£ 750,000.00
d3		Standard 2 Level 2 Workstation	1	0.0750	1.5	20.00	3.00	1.00	0.1	0.80	0.125	0.75	0.09	0.10	10.31%	6,570.00	677.53	0.16	108.74	£ 100.00	£ 208.74	£ 105.12	£15,000	2011		£ 15,000.00
e1	Flight Sortation	Flight Lateral (1x28m)	28	0.2000	1.2	6.00	10.00	210.00	6.6	0.80	8.25	0.75	6.19	0.10	6.81	6,570.00	44717.06	0.16	7177.09	£ 1,000.00	£ 8,177.09	£ 6,937.92	£13,395	2009	15.1875	£ 14,893.85
e3		Flight Racetracks (1x40m length unit)	42	0.2000	1.2	6.00	10.00	504.00	2.2	0.80	2.75	0.75	2.06	0.10	2.27	6,570.00	14905.69	0.16	2392.36	£ 5,000.00	£ 7,392.36	£ 2,312.64	£19,761	2009	15.05655	£ 21,972.18
e7		Merge VSU	3	1.0000	1.2	1.20	50.00	4.50	1.1	0.80	1.375	0.75	1.03	0.10	1.13	6,570.00	7452.84	0.16	1196.18	£ 4,000.00	£ 5,196.18	£ 1,156.32	£30,000	2010		£ 32,416.80
e9		Divert VSU	3	1.0000	1.2	1.20	50.00	4.50	1.1	0.80	1.375	0.75	1.03	0.10	1.13	6,570.00	7452.84	0.16	1196.18	£ 4,000.00	£ 5,196.18	£ 1,156.32	£29,000	2010		£ 31,336.24
e10		Indexing	3.6	0.5000	1.2	2.40	25.00	5.40	0.55	0.80	0.6875	0.75	0.52	0.10	0.57	6,570.00	3726.42	0.16	598.09	£ 1,500.00	£ 2,098.09	£ 578.16	£9,000	2010		£ 9,725.04
e11		Sortation induct	3.6	1.2000	1.2	1.00	60.00	5.40	0.75	0.80	0.9375	0.75	0.70	0.10	0.77	6,570.00	5081.48	0.16	815.58	£ 3,000.00	£ 3,815.58	£ 788.40	£36,000	2010		£ 38,900.16
e12		Sortation loop (10m per lateral pitch needed)	10	1.2000	1.2	1.00	60.00	15.00	0.75	0.80	0.9375	0.75	0.70	0.10	0.77	6,570.00	5081.48	0.16	815.58		£ 815.58	£ 788.40	£6,000	2010		£ 6,483.36
e21		Power bus (1 off assembly unit)	1	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	0.00	0	0.80	0	0.75	0.00	0.10	0.00	6,570.00	0.00	0.16	500.00	£ 500.00	£ 1,000.00	£ -	£1,332,000	2010		£ 1,439,305.92
e22		Scanner array (1 unit)	2.4	1.0000	1.2	1.20	50.00	4.20	0.1	0.80	0.125	0.75	0.09	0.10	0.10	6,570.00	677.53	0.16	108.74	£ 3,000.00	£ 3,108.74	£ 105.12	£37,000	2010		£ 39,980.72
f2		ULD Powered Rollerbed (1x2m rollerbed)	2	0.5000	3	6.00	10.00	16.00	3	0.80	3.75	0.75	2.81	0.10	3.09	6,570.00	20325.94	0.16	3262.31	£ 2,000.00	£ 5,262.31	£ 3,153.60	£20,000	2011		£ 20,000.00
g1	Automatic ULD Build	Robotics (Grenzebach)	6	4bags/min	n/a	n/a	4.00	30.00	1.1	0.80	1.375	0.75	1.03	0.10	1.13	6,570.00	7452.84	0.16	1196.18	£ 3,000.00	£ 4,196.18	£ 1,156.32	£392,000	2011		£ 392,000.00
g2		Manipulator (RTT type unit)	6	6bags/min	n/a	n/a	6.00	36.00	1.1	0.80	1.375	0.75	1.03	0.10	1.13	6,570.00	7452.84	0.16	1196.18	£ 3,000.00	£ 4,196.18	£ 1,156.32	£58,000	2011		£ 58,000.00
h1	Power	Power Conditioner (1 off per facility)	2	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	2.00	0.15	0.80	0.1875	0.75	0.14	0.10	0.15	6,570.00	1016.30	0.16	163.12	£ 500.00	£ 663.12	£ 157.68	£5,000	2011		£ 5,000.00
h2		Power Incomer (1 off per drive)	0.05	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	0.05	0	0.80	0	0.75	0.00	0.10	0.00	6,570.00	0.00	0.16	0.00	£ 500.00	£ 500.00	£ -	£1,000	2010		£ 1,080.56
h3		Motor Controllers (1 off)	5	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	5.00	0.15	0.80	0.1875	0.75	0.14	0.10	0.15	6,570.00	1016.30	0.16	163.12	£ 1,000.00	£ 1,163.12	£ 157.68	£15,000	2011		£ 15,000.00
h4	IT	Programmable Controller Computer (1 off)	1	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	1.00	0.25	0.80	0.3125	0.75	0.23	0.10	0.26	6,570.00	1693.83	0.16	271.86	£ 5,000.00	£ 5,271.86	£ 262.80	£10,000	2011		£ 10,000.00
h5		Programmable Controller Module (1 off)	0.05	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	0.05	0.25	0.80	0.3125	0.75	0.23	0.10	0.26	6,570.00	1693.83	0.16	271.86	£ 1,000.00	£ 1,271.86	£ 262.80	£2,000	2010		£ 2,161.12
h6		Programmable Controller Software (1 off system cost)	0	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	0.00	0.25	0.80	0.3125	0.75	0.23	0.10	0.26	6,570.00	1693.83	0.16	271.86	£ 1,000.00	£ 1,271.86	£ 262.80	£10,000	2011		£ 10,000.00
h7		Sort Allocation Computer (1 off Unit and software)	2	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	2.00	0.25	0.80	0.3125	0.75	0.23	0.10	0.26	6,570.00	1693.83	0.16	271.86	£ 5,000.00	£ 5,271.86	£ 262.80	£447,000	2010		£ 483,010.32
h8		Control System Computer and Display (1 off)	1	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	1.00	0.25	0.80	0.3125	0.75	0.23	0.10	0.26	6,570.00	1693.83	0.16	271.86	£ 10,000.00	£ 10,271.86	£ 262.80	£15,000	2011		£ 15,000.00
h9		Safety Equipment (per drive)	0.05	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	0.05	0.01	0.80	0.0125	0.75	0.01	0.10	0.01	6,570.00	67.75	0.16	10.87	£ 500.00	£ 510.87	£ 10.51	£1,000	2010		£ 1,080.56
h10		Network (per drive)	0	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	0.00	0.01	0.80	0.0125	0.75	0.01	0.10	0.01	6,570.00	67.75	0.16	10.87	£ 600.00	£ 610.87	£ 10.51	£100,000	2010		£ 108,056.00
h11		SCADA system (base hardware / software)	2	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	2.00	0.25	0.80	0.3125	0.75	0.23	0.10	0.26	6,570.00	1693.83	0.16	271.86	£ 10,000.00	£ 10,271.86	£ 262.80	£122,000	2010		£ 131,828.32
i1	Handling Agent	Manual loader (lateral racetrack chute)	1	2bags/min/o per	n/a	n/a	2.00	1.50	N/A	0.80		0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	6,570.00	0.00	0.16	0.00	£ -	£ -	£ 30,849.99	£0	2010		£ -
i2		Manual loader (Robotics support & top up)	1	2bags/min/o per	n/a	n/a	2.00	1.50	N/A	0.80		0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	6,570.00	0.00	0.16	0.00	£ -	£ -	£ 30,849.99	£0	2010		£ -
i3		Manual loader (RTT)	1	6bags/min/o per	n/a	n/a	6.00	1.50	N/A	0.80		0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	6,570.00	0.00	0.16	0.00	£ -	£ -	£ 30,849.99	£0	2010		£ -
j1	Steelwork	Platform (per m run)	1	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	0.00	N/A	0.80		0.75	0.00	0.10	0.00	6,570.00	0.00	0.16	0.00	£ -	£ 10.00	N/A	£1,000	2010		£ 1,080.56
j3		Stairs (per ladder)	1	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	0.00	N/A	0.80		0.75	0.00	0.10	0.00	6,570.00	0.00	0.16	0.00	£ -	£ 15.00	N/A	£2,000	2010		£ 2,161.12
k1	Sub equipment	Fire door (per door)	1	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	2.00	N/A			0.75	0.00	0.10	0.00	6,570.00	0.00	0.16	0.00	£ -	£ 1,000.00	N/A	£13,000	2010		£ 14,047.28

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APPENDIX D ASSEMBLY ENVIRONMENT WORKSHEET – SELECTED EQUIPMENT CONFIGURATIONS

Process Step	Fully Auto Build	Semi Auto Build	Manual Build
	% included	% included	% included
Check-in	100%	100%	100%
Delivery	100%	100%	100%
EBS (% of bags/hr pre-stored)	38%	38%	38%
HBS	100%	100%	100%
Flight Sortation (LATERAL OR RACETRACK)	75%	75%	100%
ULD Distribution (POWERED ROLLERBED)	100%	100%	100%
Automatic ULD Build	25%	25%	0%
Power	100%	100%	100%
IT	100%	100%	100%

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APPENDIX E ASSEMBLY ENVIRONMENT WORKSHEET – SAMPLE DATA PROVIDED

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R
	Demand	5940	Bags/Hour				Fully Automatic				Semi Automatic				Manual			
		99	Bags/Min	Fully	Semi	Manual	Baggage	Baggage	Building	Building	Baggage	Baggage	Building	Building	Baggage	Baggage	Building	Building
Ref ID	System Function	Sub System Technology	Process Qty	Actual Qty	Actual Qty	Actual Qty	CAPEX	OPEX	CAPEX	OPEX	CAPEX	OPEX	CAPEX	OPEX	CAPEX	OPEX	CAPEX	OPEX
a1	Check-in	Conventional Conveyor (3x1.2m assembly)	148	£148	£148	£148	£1,992,019	£804,816	£2,378,741	£52,662	£1,992,019	£804,816	£2,378,741	£52,662	£1,992,019	£804,816	£2,378,741	£52,662
b1	Delivery	Collector Belt (1x20m)	4	4	4	4	£27,233	£27,471	£354,168	£7,841	£27,233	£27,471	£354,168	£7,841	£27,233	£27,471	£354,168	£7,841
b4		Powered Belt Curve	4	40	40	40	£1,259,289	£143,794	£579,506	£12,829	£1,259,289	£143,794	£579,506	£12,829	£1,259,289	£143,794	£579,506	£12,829
c1	Early Baggage Store	Conveyor Lane Q conveyors (1x1.2m)	2	2,257	2,257	2,257	£6,771,600	£6,085,821	£12,112,548	£268,155	£6,771,600	£6,085,821	£12,112,548	£268,155	£6,771,600	£6,085,821	£12,112,548	£268,155
d1	Hold Baggage Screening	Standard 2 Level 1 Unit	5	5	5	5	£1,237,500	£144,321	£368,925	£8,168	£1,237,500	£144,321	£368,925	£8,168	£1,237,500	£144,321	£368,925	£8,168
d2		Standard 2 Level 3 Unit 5% reject rate	1	1	1	1	£928,125	£36,080	£124,512	£2,757	£928,125	£36,080	£124,512	£2,757	£928,125	£36,080	£124,512	£2,757
d3		Standard 2 Level 2 Workstation 20% reject rate	7	7	7	7	£99,000	£1,378	£19,676	£436	£99,000	£1,378	£19,676	£436	£99,000	£1,378	£19,676	£436
e1	Flight Sortation	Flight Lateral (1x28m)	10	14	14	0	£201,067	£110,391	£8,451,738	£187,110	£201,067	£110,391	£8,451,738	£187,110	£0	£0	£0	£0
e3		Flight Racetracks (1x40m length unit)	10	Not used	Not used	10	£0	£0	£0	£0	£0	£0	£0	£0	£217,525	£73,184	£14,875,059	£329,314
e9		Divert VSU	2	12	10	16	£379,090	£62,861	£162,293	£3,593	£314,459	£52,144	£134,624	£2,980	£495,426	£82,152	£212,098	£4,696
e10		Indexing	4	75	65	94	£734,119	£158,380	£1,215,239	£26,904	£633,829	£136,743	£1,049,223	£23,228	£914,640	£197,325	£1,514,069	£33,519
e11		Sortation induct	2	2	2	0	£64,185	£6,296	£26,563	£588	£64,185	£6,296	£26,563	£588	£0	£0	£0	£0
e12		Sortation loop (10m per lateral pitch needed)	2	39	35	0	£255,282	£32,113	£1,760,779	£3,898	£228,538	£28,749	£1,576,316	£3,490	£0	£0	£0	£0
e21		Power bus (1 off assembly) unit)	1	1	1	1	£1,439,306	£1,000	£0	£0	£1,439,306	£1,000	£0	£0	£1,439,306	£1,000	£0	£0
e22		Scanner array (1 unit)	2	2	2	2	£65,968	£5,129	£20,660	£457	£65,968	£5,129	£20,660	£457	£65,968	£5,129	£20,660	£457
f2		ULD Powered Rollerbed	10	117	108	90	£2,336,250	£614,704	£5,571,887	£123,354	£2,157,500	£567,672	£5,145,573	£113,916	£1,800,000	£473,608	£4,292,946	£95,040
g1	Automatic ULD Build	Robotics (Grenzebach)	25	6	0	0	£2,425,500	£25,964	£553,388	£12,251	£0	£0	£0	£0	£0	£0	£0	£0
g2		Manipulator (RTT type unit)	17	0	4	0	£0	£0	£0	£0	£239,250	£17,309	£442,710	£9,801	£0	£0	£0	£0
h1	Power	Power Conditioner (1 off per facility)	1	1	1	1	£5,000	£663	£5,962	£132	£5,000	£663	£5,962	£132	£5,000	£663	£5,962	£132
h2		Power Incomer (1 off per drive)	1	1	1	1	£1,081	£500	£149	£3	£1,081	£500	£149	£3	£1,081	£500	£149	£3
h3		Motor Controllers (1 off)	1	1	1	1	£15,000	£1,163	£14,906	£330	£15,000	£1,163	£14,906	£330	£15,000	£1,163	£14,906	£330
h4	IT	Programmable Controller Computer (1 off)	1	1	1	1	£10,000	£5,272	£2,981	£66	£10,000	£5,272	£2,981	£66	£10,000	£5,272	£2,981	£66
h5		Programmable Controller Module	1	2,681	2,660	2,671	£5,793,652	£3,409,672	£399,610	£8,847	£5,747,593	£3,382,566	£396,433	£8,776	£5,772,500	£3,397,224	£398,151	£8,815
h6		Programmable Controller Software (1 off system)	1	1	1	1	£10,000	£1,272	£0	£0	£10,000	£1,272	£0	£0	£10,000	£1,272	£0	£0
h7		Sort Allocation Computer (1 off Unit and software)	1	1	1	1	£483,010	£5,272	£5,962	£132	£483,010	£5,272	£5,962	£132	£483,010	£5,272	£5,962	£132
h8		Control System Computer and Display (1 off)	10	10	10	10	£150,000	£102,719	£29,812	£660	£150,000	£102,719	£29,812	£660	£150,000	£102,719	£29,812	£660
h9		Safety Equipment (per drive)	1	2,681	2,660	2,671	£2,896,826	£1,369,581	£399,610	£8,847	£2,873,797	£1,358,693	£396,433	£8,776	£2,886,250	£1,364,581	£398,151	£8,815
h10		Network (per installation)	1	1	1	1	£108,056	£1,637,666	£0	£0	£108,056	£1,624,647	£0	£0	£108,056	£1,631,687	£0	£0
h11		SCADA system (base hardware / software)	1	1	1	1	£131,828	£10,272	£5,962	£132	£131,828	£10,272	£5,962	£132	£131,828	£10,272	£5,962	£132
i1	Handling Agent	Manual loader (lateral racetrack chute)	50	37	37	50	£0	£4,008,570	£166,016	£3,675	£0	£4,008,570	£166,016	£3,675	£0	£5,344,760	£221,355	£4,901
i2		Manual loader (Robotics support & top up)	50	6	0	0	£0	£668,095	£27,669	£613	£0	£0	£0	£0	£0	£0	£0	£0
i3		Manual loader (RTT)	17	Not used	4	Not used	£0	£0	£0	£0	£0	£445,397	£18,446	£408	£0	£0	£0	£0
j1	Steel work	Platform (per m run)	N/A	3,820	3,777	3,647	£4,127,658	£38,199	£0	£0	£4,081,228	£37,770	£0	£0	£3,941,006	£36,472	£0	£0
j3		Stairs (per ladder)	N/A	89	89	89	£193,122	£1,340	£0	£0	£191,586	£1,330	£0	£0	£192,417	£1,336	£0	£0
k1	Sub equipment	Fire door (per door)	4	4	4	4	£55,627	£3,960	£23,611	£523	£55,627	£3,960	£23,611	£523	£55,627	£3,960	£23,611	£523
							£20,175,873	£21,477,208	£20,521,897	£808,459	£18,598,379	£21,075,096	£19,972,774	£789,836	£18,295,550	£21,981,555	£22,396,349	£924,419
						Calculated "On-Cost"	£9,483,442				£8,741,959				£8,599,618			
						Calculated Total CAPEX + On cost	£50,181,212				£47,313,112				£49,291,516			

[illegible]

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APPENDIX G RESULTS - STAFF DATA BASE WORKSHEET / COMPLETED QUESTIONNAIRE

ITEM	QUESTION ASKED	UNITS	IATA	US CARRIER	CANADIAN CARRIER	AIRPORT OPERATING COMMITTEE	AIRPORT OPERATOR FINANCE	MEAN	Mode	MEDIAN	ACTUL DATA TO USE Q4 2011
1	What are the qualifications of a typical baggage loader?	Grades	3 C grades 0 Level	3 C grades 0 Level	3 C grades 0 Level	3 C grades 0 Level	3 C grades 0 Level	3 C grades 0 Level	3 C grades 0 Level	3 C grades 0 Level	3 C grades 0 Level
2	Generally what are the career aspirations of typical baggage handler?	Grades	Aspire to Team Leader	Do currnet job for ever	Do currnet job for ever	Aspire to Team Leader	Do currnet job for ever	Aspire to Team Leader	Aspire to Team Leader	Aspire to Team Leader	Aspire to Team Leader
3	What is the salary scale of a typical baggage handler on average?	£/Pa	30000	18250	19999	30000	30000	25650	30000	30000	28550
4	What is the peak bag processing rate of a baggage loader (Peak 5 minute rate)	Bags/min	4	3	5	4	3	4	4	4	4
5	What is the average bag processing rate of a baggage loader (Sustainable rate)	Bags/min	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	2	2
6	How many baggage handling operatives (drivers /loaders) would be used process 1million bags per annum (Manual "racetrack" baggage	Staff / 1mppa Manual	75	70	50	50	75	64	75	70	70
7	How many baggage handling operatives (drivers /loaders) would be used process 1million bags per annum (Automatic "chute/lateral" baggage	Staff / 1mppa Automatic	45	90	50	50	50	57	50	50	52

Interview results sourced from:

Cowper A, (2010), UK Airport,

Dolye H, (2010), American Airlines,

Stewart D, (2010), International Air Transport Association (IATA)

Shortland (2010), Airport Operational Committee Heathrow Airport

Taylor, (2010), Air Canada

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APPENDIX H RESULTS WORKSHEET

		Graphed Results															Sensitivities															Fully Automated															Semi Automated															Manual															Result and Ranking					
		Test	Pay/Hour	Bagge/Hour	# of Short Haul Flights / Hour	# of Long Haul Flights / Hour	Peaking Factor %	High CAPEX Factor	Base Medium CAPEX Factor	Low CAPEX Factor	High OPEX Factor	Base Medium OPEX Factor	Low OPEX Factor	High Inflation Rate %	Base Inflation Rate %	Low Inflation Rate %	High Staff Loading Rate Baga/Min	Base Staff Loading Rate Baga/Min	Low Loading Rate Baga/Min	Baggage CAPEX £	Building CAPEX £	On Cost CAPEX £	Baggage OPEX £	Building OPEX £	Building Area m²	Baggage CAPEX £	Building CAPEX £	On Cost CAPEX £	Baggage OPEX £	Building OPEX £	Building Area m²	Baggage CAPEX £	Building CAPEX £	On Cost CAPEX £	Baggage OPEX £	Building OPEX £	Building Area m²	WLCC £ - Fully Automatic	WLCC £ - Semi Automatic	WLCC £ - Manual	WLCC £ - Fully Automatic	WLCC £ - Semi Automatic	WLCC £ - Manual																																							
BASE	Short Haul Only	1	180	180	1	0	0%		0.59		0.59		3		2		1,971,621	817,652	926,736	425,999	17,116	259	1,925,196	801,518	904,917	419,744	16,825	255	1,898,551	729,572	892,393	431,168	16,152	245	(£ 4,411,881.)	(£ 4,266,482.)	(£ 4,273,810.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		2	360	360	2	0	0%		0.59		0.59		3		2		2,554,807	1,596,521	1,200,858	776,399	33,373	506	2,461,956	1,564,252	1,157,215	763,890	32,790	497	2,408,667	1,420,361	1,132,167	786,739	31,445	476	(£ 6,111,178.)	(£ 5,820,381.)	(£ 5,835,037.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		3	540	540	3	0	0%		0.59		0.59		3		2		3,137,993	2,375,389	1,474,978	1,126,800	49,631	752	2,998,716	2,326,986	1,409,513	1,108,035	48,756	739	2,918,782	2,111,149	1,371,941	1,142,309	46,738	708	(£ 7,910,476.)	(£ 7,374,260.)	(£ 7,396,264.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		4	720	720	4	0	0%		0.59		0.59		3		2		3,721,178	3,154,257	1,749,098	1,477,201	65,888	998	3,535,476	3,089,720	1,661,811	1,452,181	64,722	981	3,428,897	2,801,938	1,611,715	1,497,879	62,031	940	(£ 9,509,774.)	(£ 8,928,179.)	(£ 8,967,491.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		5	900	900	5	0	0%		0.59		0.59		3		2		4,304,364	3,933,125	2,023,218	1,827,601	82,146	1,245	4,072,236	3,852,454	1,914,109	1,796,327	80,688	1,223	3,939,013	3,492,726	1,851,489	1,853,450	77,324	1,172	(£ 11,209,072.)	(£ 10,482,078.)	(£ 10,518,718.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		6	1080	1080	6	0	0%		0.59		0.59		3		2		4,887,549	4,711,994	2,297,338	2,178,002	98,403	1,491	4,608,996	4,615,187	2,166,407	2,140,473	96,654	1,424	4,448,128	4,183,514	2,091,263	2,209,020	92,617	1,403	(£ 12,908,369.)	(£ 12,035,977.)	(£ 12,079,945.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		7	1260	1260	7	0	0%		0.59		0.59		3		2		5,470,735	5,490,862	2,571,457	2,528,403	114,661	1,737	5,145,756	5,377,921	2,418,705	2,484,618	112,620	1,706	4,983,484	4,883,203	2,342,431	2,569,532	108,107	1,638	(£ 14,607,667.)	(£ 13,589,876.)	(£ 13,735,195.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		8	1440	1440	8	0	0%		0.59		0.59		3		2		6,053,920	6,269,730	2,845,577	2,878,803	130,918	1,984	5,682,516	6,140,655	2,671,003	2,828,764	128,586	1,948	5,500,211	5,576,419	2,585,312	2,926,451	123,454	1,871	(£ 16,306,965.)	(£ 15,143,775.)	(£ 15,322,064.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		9	1620	1620	9	0	0%		0.59		0.59		3		2		6,637,106	7,048,599	3,119,697	3,229,204	147,175	2,230	6,219,276	6,903,389	2,923,301	3,172,910	144,552	2,190	6,016,937	6,269,634	2,828,194	3,283,369	138,801	2,103	(£ 18,006,263.)	(£ 16,697,674.)	(£ 16,908,934.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		10	1800	1800	10	0	0%		0.59		0.59		3		2		7,220,291	7,827,467	3,393,817	3,579,605	163,433	2,476	6,756,036	7,666,123	3,175,599	3,517,056	160,518	2,432	6,533,664	6,962,850	3,071,075	3,640,287	154,148	2,336	(£ 19,705,560.)	(£ 18,251,573.)	(£ 18,495,804.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		11	1980	1980	11	0	0%		0.59		0.59		3		2		7,826,892	8,614,932	3,678,942	3,934,779	179,881	2,725	7,292,796	8,428,857	3,427,897	3,861,202	176,484	2,674	7,050,390	7,656,066	3,313,957	3,997,205	169,495	2,568	(£ 21,495,676.)	(£ 19,805,472.)	(£ 20,082,673.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		12	2160	2160	12	0	0%		0.59		0.59		3		2		8,414,209	9,395,317	3,955,004	4,286,022	196,172	2,972	7,829,556	9,191,591	3,680,195	4,205,347	192,450	2,916	7,567,117	8,349,281	3,556,638	4,354,123	184,842	2,801	(£ 23,211,000.)	(£ 21,359,372.)	(£ 21,689,543.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		13	2340	2340	13	0	0%		0.59		0.59		3		2		9,001,527	10,175,703	4,231,066	4,637,265	212,463	3,219	8,366,316	9,954,325	3,932,493	4,549,493	208,416	3,158	8,083,843	9,042,497	3,799,720	4,711,042	200,189	3,033	(£ 24,926,324.)	(£ 22,913,271.)	(£ 23,256,412.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		14	2520	2520	14	0	0%		0.59		0.59		3		2		9,613,085	10,964,988	4,518,523	4,993,451	228,951	3,469	8,927,317	10,725,959	4,196,185	4,898,581	224,579	3,403	8,624,811	9,744,613	4,053,995	5,072,902	215,732	3,269	(£ 26,735,672.)	(£ 24,561,192.)	(£ 24,937,305.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		15	2700	2700	15	0	0%		0.59		0.59		3		2		10,203,708	11,746,587	4,796,138	5,345,368	245,268	3,716	9,467,383	11,489,906	4,450,037	5,243,401	240,572	3,645	9,144,843	10,439,042	4,298,431	5,430,494	231,106	3,502	(£ 28,463,817.)	(£ 26,127,913.)	(£ 26,536,996.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		16	2880	2880	16	0	0%		0.59		0.59		3		2		10,794,332	12,528,186	5,073,754	5,697,285	261,586	3,963	10,029,486	12,261,945	4,714,247	5,592,714	256,743	3,890	9,664,875	11,133,471	4,542,866	5,788,087	246,480	3,735	(£ 30,191,963.)	(£ 27,780,108.)	(£ 28,136,687.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		17	3060	3060	17	0	0%		0.59		0.59		3		2		11,407,873	13,318,200	5,362,143	6,053,875	278,090	4,213	10,595,225	13,035,318	4,980,167	5,942,768	272,945	4,136	10,207,826	11,836,315	4,798,074	6,150,351	262,040	3,970	(£ 32,009,003.)	(£ 29,446,407.)	(£ 29,825,272.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		18	3240	3240	18	0	0%		0.59		0.59		3		2		12,001,141	14,100,770	5,641,002	6,406,331	294,430	4,461	11,140,690	13,801,248	5,236,556	6,288,688	288,982	4,379	10,730,503	12,531,716	5,043,752	6,508,483	277,435	4,204	(£ 33,747,405.)	(£ 31,034,069.)	(£ 31,435,220.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		19	3420	3420	19	0	0%		0.59		0.59		3		2		12,594,409	14,833,339	5,919,860	6,758,787	310,769	4,709	11,686,155	14,567,178	5,492,946	6,634,609	305,018	4,621	11,253,179	13,227,116	5,289,430	6,866,614	292,830	4,437	(£ 35,485,808.)	(£ 32,621,731.)	(£ 33,045,168.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		20	3600	3600	20	0	0%		0.59		0.59		3		2		13,187,678	15,665,909	6,198,719	7,111,244	327,109	4,956	12,231,619	15,333,108	5,749,335	6,980,529	321,055	4,864	11,775,856	13,922,516	5,535,109	7,224,745	308,226	4,670	(£ 37,224,211.)	(£ 34,209,393.)	(£ 34,655,115.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		21	3780	3780	21	0	0%		0.59		0.59		3		2		13,780,944	16,448,479	6,477,578	7,463,700	343,448	5,204	12,777,084	16,099,038	6,005,725	7,326,450	337,092	5,107	12,298,532	14,617,917	5,780,787	7,582,877	323,621	4,903	(£ 38,962,614.)	(£ 35,797,054.)	(£ 36,265,063.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		22	3960	3960	22	0	0%		0.59		0.59		3		2		14,374,212	17,231,049	6,756,437	7,816,156	359,787	5,451	13,322,459	16,864,968	6,262,115	7,672,370	353,128	5,350	12,821,209	15,313,317	6,026,465	7,941,008	339,016	5,137	(£ 40,701,016.)	(£ 37,384,716.)	(£ 37,875,011.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		23	4140	4140	23	0	0%		0.59		0.59		3		2		14,967,479	18,013,619	7,035,295	8,168,612	376,127	5,699	13,868,014	17,630,897	6,5																																																									

X. APPENDICES

RESULTS WORKSHEET CONTINUED

High CAPEX Factor

X. Appendices

X. APPENDICES

APPENDIX H RESULTS WORKSHEET CONTINUED

		Graphed Results															Sensitivities															Fully Automated															Semi Automated															Manual															Result and Ranking					
		Test	Pax/Hour	Bags/Hour	# of Short Haul Flights / Hour	# of Long Haul Flights / Hour	Peaking Factor %	High CAPEX Factor	Base Medium CAPEX Factor	Low CAPEX Factor	High OPEX Factor	Base Medium OPEX Factor	Low OPEX Factor	High Inflation Rate %	Base Inflation Rate %	Low Inflation Rate %	High Staff Loading Rate Bags/Min	Base Staff Loading Rate Bags/Min	Low Loading Rate Bags/Min	Baggage CAPEX £	Building CAPEX £	On Cost CAPEX £	Baggage OPEX £	Building OPEX £	Building Area m²	Baggage CAPEX £	Building CAPEX £	On Cost CAPEX £	Baggage OPEX £	Building OPEX £	Building Area m²	Baggage CAPEX £	Building CAPEX £	On Cost CAPEX £	Baggage OPEX £	Building OPEX £	Building Area m²	WLCC £ - Fully Automatic	WLCC £ - Semi Automatic	WLCC £ - Manual	WLCC £ - Fully Automatic	WLCC £ - Semi Automatic	WLCC £ - Manual																																							
Low CAPEX Factor	Short Haul Only	121	180	180	1	0	0%			0.19			0.59			3		2		634,929	263,312	298,441	425,999	17,116	259	619,978	258,116	291,414	419,744	16,825	255	611,398	234,947	287,381	431,168	16,152	245	(£ 2,076,464.)	(£ 1,984,097.)	(£ 2,061,258.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																							
		122	360	360	2	0	0%			0.19			0.59			3		2		822,734	514,134	386,717	776,399	33,373	506	792,833	503,742	372,662	763,890	32,790	497	775,672	457,404	364,596	786,739	31,445	476	(£ 2,747,470.)	(£ 2,562,736.)	(£ 2,717,056.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																							
		123	540	540	3	0	0%			0.19			0.59			3		2		1,010,540	764,956	474,993	1,126,800	49,631	752	965,688	749,368	453,911	1,108,035	48,756	739	939,947	679,862	441,811	1,142,309	46,738	708	(£ 3,418,475.)	(£ 3,141,374.)	(£ 3,372,855.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																							
		124	720	720	4	0	0%			0.19			0.59			3		2		1,198,345	1,015,778	563,269	1,477,201	65,888	998	1,138,543	994,994	535,159	1,452,181	64,722	981	1,104,221	902,319	519,027	1,497,879	62,031	940	(£ 4,089,481.)	(£ 3,720,013.)	(£ 4,028,654.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																							
		125	900	900	5	0	0%			0.19			0.59			3		2		1,386,151	1,266,600	651,545	1,827,601	82,146	1,245	1,311,398	1,240,621	616,408	1,796,327	80,688	1,223	1,268,496	1,124,776	596,242	1,853,450	77,324	1,172	(£ 4,760,486.)	(£ 4,298,651.)	(£ 4,684,453.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																							
		126	1080	1080	6	0	0%			0.19			0.59			3		2		1,573,957	1,517,422	739,821	2,178,002	98,403	1,491	1,484,253	1,486,247	697,656	2,140,473	96,654	1,464	1,432,770	1,347,233	673,457	2,209,020	92,617	1,403	(£ 5,431,492.)	(£ 4,877,290.)	(£ 5,340,252.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																							
		127	1260	1260	7	0	0%			0.19			0.59			3		2		1,761,762	1,768,244	828,096	2,528,403	114,661	1,737	1,657,108	1,731,873	778,905	2,484,618	112,620	1,706	1,604,851	1,572,557	754,342	2,569,532	108,107	1,638	(£ 6,102,497.)	(£ 5,455,928.)	(£ 6,062,084.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																							
		128	1440	1440	8	0	0%			0.19			0.59			3		2		1,949,568	2,019,066	916,372	2,878,803	130,918	1,984	1,829,963	1,977,499	860,153	2,828,764	128,586	1,948	1,771,254	1,795,796	832,558	2,926,451	123,454	1,871	(£ 6,773,503.)	(£ 6,034,567.)	(£ 6,735,892.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																							
		129	1620	1620	9	0	0%			0.19			0.59			3		2		2,137,373	2,269,888	1,004,648	3,229,204	147,175	2,230	2,002,818	2,223,125	941,402	3,172,910	144,552	2,190	1,937,658	2,019,035	910,774	3,283,699	138,801	2,103	(£ 7,444,508.)	(£ 6,613,205.)	(£ 7,409,700.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																							
		130	1800	1800	10	0	0%			0.19			0.59			3		2		2,325,179	2,520,710	1,092,924	3,579,605	163,433	2,476	2,175,673	2,468,751	1,022,651	3,517,056	160,518	2,432	2,104,061	2,242,274	988,990	3,640,287	154,148	2,336	(£ 8,115,514.)	(£ 7,191,844.)	(£ 8,083,508.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																							
		131	1980	1980	11	0	0%			0.19			0.59			3		2		2,520,524	2,774,300	1,184,744	3,934,779	179,881	2,725	2,348,528	2,714,378	1,103,899	3,861,202	176,484	2,674	2,270,465	2,465,513	1,067,206	3,997,205	169,495	2,568	(£ 8,850,302.)	(£ 7,770,482.)	(£ 8,757,316.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																							
		132	2160	2160	12	0	0%			0.19			0.59			3		2		2,709,661	3,025,611	1,273,646	4,286,022	196,172	2,972	2,521,383	2,960,004	1,185,148	4,205,347	192,450	2,916	2,436,868	2,688,752	1,145,422	4,354,123	184,842	2,801	(£ 9,532,563.)	(£ 8,349,121.)	(£ 9,431,124.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																							
		133	2340	2340	13	0	0%			0.19			0.59			3		2		2,898,797	3,276,921	1,362,547	4,637,265	212,463	3,219	2,694,237	3,205,630	1,266,396	4,549,493	208,416	3,158	2,603,272	2,911,991	1,223,639	4,711,042	200,189	3,033	(£ 10,214,824.)	(£ 8,927,759.)	(£ 10,104,932.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																							
		134	2520	2520	14	0	0%			0.19			0.59			3		2		3,095,739	3,531,098	1,455,117	4,993,451	228,951	3,469	2,874,899	3,454,122	1,351,314	4,898,581	224,579	3,403	2,777,481	3,138,096	1,305,524	5,072,902	215,732	3,269	(£ 10,963,119.)	(£ 9,572,431.)	(£ 10,844,774.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																							
		135	2700	2700	15	0	0%			0.19			0.59			3		2		3,285,940	3,782,799	1,544,519	5,345,368	245,268	3,716	3,048,818	3,700,139	1,433,063	5,243,401	240,572	3,645	2,944,949	3,361,725	1,384,240	5,430,494	231,106	3,502	(£ 11,654,385.)	(£ 10,160,074.)	(£ 11,527,586.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																							
		136	2880	2880	16	0	0%			0.19			0.59			3		2		3,476,141	4,034,501	1,633,921	5,697,285	261,586	3,963	3,229,834	3,948,762	1,518,147	5,592,714	256,743	3,890	3,112,417	3,585,355	1,462,957	5,788,087	246,480	3,735	(£ 12,345,650.)	(£ 10,807,747.)	(£ 12,210,399.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																							
		137	3060	3060	17	0	0%			0.19			0.59			3		2		3,673,722	4,288,912	1,726,792	6,053,875	278,090	4,213	3,412,022	4,197,814	1,603,782	5,942,768	272,945	4,136	3,287,266	3,811,695	1,545,142	6,150,351	262,040	3,970	(£ 13,099,348.)	(£ 11,465,326.)	(£ 12,955,643.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																							
		138	3240	3240	18	0	0%			0.19			0.59			3		2		3,864,774	4,540,926	1,816,594	6,406,331	294,430	4,461	3,587,680	4,444,470	1,686,349	6,288,688	288,982	4,379	3,455,586	4,035,637	1,624,259	6,508,483	277,435	4,204	(£ 13,797,817.)	(£ 12,067,676.)	(£ 13,645,659.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																							
		139	3420	3420	19	0	0%			0.19			0.59			3		2		4,055,827	4,792,940	1,906,396	6,758,787	310,769	4,709	3,763,338	4,691,125	1,768,915	6,634,609	305,018	4,621	3,623,905	4,259,580	1,703,376	6,866,614	292,830	4,437	(£ 14,496,287.)	(£ 12,670,027.)	(£ 14,335,675.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																							
		140	3600	3600	20	0	0%			0.19			0.59			3		2		4,246,879	5,044,954	1,996,198	7,111,244	327,109	4,956	3,938,996	4,937,781	1,851,481	6,980,529	321,055	4,864	3,792,225	4,483,522	1,782,493	7,224,745	308,226	4,670	(£ 15,194,756.)	(£ 13,272,377.)	(£ 15,025,691.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																							
		141	3780	3780	21	0	0%			0.19			0.59			3		2		4,437,931	5,296,968	2,086,000	7,463,700	343,448	5,204	4,114,654	5,184,436	1,934,407	7,326,450	337,092	5,107	3,960,544	4,707,465	1,861,609	7,582,817	323,621	4,903	(£ 15,893,225.)	(£ 13,874,728.)	(£ 15,715,708.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																							
		142	3960	3960	22	0	0%			0.19			0.59			3		2		4,628,983	5,548,982	2,175,802	7,816,156	359,787	5,451	4,290,312	5,431,091	2,016,613	7,672,370	353,128	5,350	4,128,864	4,931,407	1,940,726	7,941,008	339,016	5,137	(£ 16,591,695.)	(£ 14,47,47																																											

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		Graphed Results							Sensitivities								Fully Automated						Semi Automated						Manual					Result and Ranking									
		Test	Pax/Hour	Bags/Hour	# of Short Haul Flights / Hour	# of Long Haul Flights / Hour	Peaking Factor %	High CAPEX Factor	Base Medium CAPEX Factor	Low CAPEX Factor	High OPEX Factor	Base Medium OPEX Factor	Low OPEX Factor	High Inflation Rate %	Base Inflation Rate %	Low Inflation Rate %	High Staff Loading Rate Bags/Min	Base Staff Loading Rate Bags/Min	Low Loading Rate Bags/Min	Baggage CAPEX £	Building CAPEX £	On Cost CAPEX £	Baggage OPEX £	Building OPEX £	Building Area m²	Baggage CAPEX £	Building CAPEX £	On Cost CAPEX £	Baggage OPEX £	Building OPEX £	Building Area m²	Baggage CAPEX £	Building CAPEX £	On Cost CAPEX £	Baggage OPEX £	Building OPEX £	Building Area m²	WLCC £ - Fully Automatic	WLCC £ - Semi Automatic	WLCC £ - Manual	WLCC £ - Fully Automatic	WLCC £ - Semi Automatic	WLCC £ - Manual
Short Haul Only		181	180	180	1	0	0%	0.59	1.1					3			2			1,971,621	817,652	926,738	794,235	31,911	943	1,925,196	801,518	904,917	782,573	31,368	475	1,898,551	729,572	892,393	803,873	30,113	456	(£ 5,247,884.)	(£ 5,044,417.)	(£ 5,147,116.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest
		182	360	360	2	0	0%	0.59	1.1											2,554,807	1,596,521	1,200,858	1,447,524	62,222	984	2,461,956	1,564,252	1,157,215	1,424,201	61,135	926	2,408,667	1,420,361	1,132,167	1,466,801	58,626	888	(£ 7,104,994.)	(£ 6,898,060.)	(£ 6,903,457.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest
		183	540	540	3	0	0%	0.59	1.1											3,137,993	2,375,389	1,474,978	2,100,814	92,532	1,402	2,998,716	2,326,966	1,498,513	2,065,829	90,902	1,377	2,918,782	2,111,149	1,371,941	2,129,729	87,139	1,320	(£ 8,962,104.)	(£ 8,351,703.)	(£ 8,659,799.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest
		184	720	720	4	0	0%	0.59	1.1											3,721,178	3,154,257	1,749,098	2,754,103	122,843	1,861	3,535,476	3,089,720	1,661,811	2,707,456	120,669	1,828	3,428,897	2,801,938	1,611,715	2,792,656	115,651	1,752	(£ 10,819,213.)	(£ 10,005,345.)	(£ 10,416,140.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest
		185	900	900	5	0	0%	0.59	1.1											4,304,364	3,933,125	2,023,218	3,407,392	153,153	2,321	4,072,236	3,852,454	1,914,109	3,349,084	150,436	2,279	3,939,013	3,492,726	1,851,489	3,455,584	144,164	2,184	(£ 12,676,323.)	(£ 11,658,998.)	(£ 12,172,481.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest
		186	1080	1080	6	0	0%	0.59	1.1											4,887,549	4,711,994	2,297,338	4,060,682	183,463	2,780	4,608,996	4,615,187	2,166,407	3,990,712	180,203	2,730	4,448,128	4,183,514	2,091,263	4,118,512	172,676	2,616	(£ 14,533,433.)	(£ 13,312,631.)	(£ 13,928,823.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest
		187	1260	1260	7	0	0%	0.59	1.1											5,470,735	5,490,862	2,571,457	4,713,971	213,774	3,239	5,145,756	5,377,921	2,418,705	4,632,339	209,970	3,181	4,983,484	4,883,203	2,342,431	4,790,654	201,556	3,054	(£ 16,390,542.)	(£ 14,966,274.)	(£ 15,824,774.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest
		188	1440	1440	8	0	0%	0.59	1.1											6,053,920	6,269,730	2,845,577	5,367,261	244,084	3,698	5,682,516	6,140,655	2,671,003	5,273,967	239,737	3,632	5,500,211	5,576,419	2,585,312	5,456,094	230,169	3,487	(£ 18,247,652.)	(£ 16,619,916.)	(£ 17,619,191.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest
		189	1620	1620	9	0	0%	0.59	1.1											6,637,106	7,048,599	3,119,697	6,020,550	274,395	4,157	6,219,276	6,903,389	2,923,3															

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APPENDIX H RESULTS WORKSHEET CONTINUED

		Graphed Results										Sensitivities										Fully Automated					Semi Automated					Manual					Result and Ranking						
		Test	Per/Hour	Bags/Hour	# of Short Haul Flights / Hour	# of Long Haul Flights / Hour	Peaking Factor %	High CAPEX Factor	Base Medium CAPEX Factor	Low CAPEX Factor	High OPEX Factor	Base Medium OPEX Factor	Low OPEX Factor	High Inflation Rate %	Base Inflation Rate %	Low Inflation Rate %	High Staff Loading Rate Bags/Min	Base Staff Loading Rate Bags/Min	Low Loading Rate Bags/Min	Baggage CAPEX £	Building CAPEX £	On Cost CAPEX £	Baggage OPEX £	Building OPEX £	Building Area m²	Baggage CAPEX £	Building CAPEX £	On Cost CAPEX £	Baggage OPEX £	Building OPEX £	Building Area m²	Baggage CAPEX £	Building CAPEX £	On Cost CAPEX £	Baggage OPEX £	Building OPEX £	Building Area m²	WLCC £ - Fully Automatic	WLCC £ - Semi Automatic	WLCC £ - Manual	WLCC £ - Fully Automatic	WLCC £ - Semi Automatic	WLCC £ - Manual
Low OPEX Factor	Short Haul Only	241	180	180	1	0	0%		0.59		0.19		3		2		1,971,621	817,652	926,738	137,186	5,512	84	1,925,196	801,518	904,917	135,172	5,418	82	1,898,551	729,572	892,393	138,851	5,201	79	(£ 3,756,191.)	(£ 3,656,336.)	(£ 3,588,864.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest			
		242	360	360	2	0	0%		0.59		0.19		3		2		2,554,807	1,596,521	1,200,858	250,027	10,747	163	2,461,956	1,564,252	1,157,215	245,998	10,560	160	2,408,667	1,420,361	1,132,167	253,357	10,126	153	(£ 5,331,715.)	(£ 5,132,005.)	(£ 4,997,060.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest			
		243	540	540	3	0	0%		0.59		0.19		3		2		3,137,993	2,375,389	1,474,978	362,868	15,983	242	2,998,716	2,326,986	1,409,513	356,825	15,701	238	2,918,782	2,111,149	1,371,941	367,862	15,051	228	(£ 6,907,239.)	(£ 6,607,674.)	(£ 6,405,256.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest			
		244	720	720	4	0	0%		0.59		0.19		3		2		3,721,178	3,154,257	1,749,098	475,709	21,218	321	3,535,476	3,089,720	1,661,811	467,652	20,843	316	3,428,897	2,801,938	1,611,715	482,368	19,976	303	(£ 8,482,763.)	(£ 8,083,343.)	(£ 7,813,452.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest			
		245	900	900	5	0	0%		0.59		0.19		3		2		4,304,364	3,933,125	2,023,218	588,550	26,454	401	4,072,236	3,852,454	1,914,109	578,478	25,984	394	3,939,013	3,492,726	1,851,489	596,874	24,901	377	(£ 10,058,286.)	(£ 9,559,011.)	(£ 9,221,649.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest			
		246	1080	1080	6	0	0%		0.59		0.19		3		2		4,887,549	4,711,994	2,297,338	701,390	31,689	480	4,608,996	4,615,187	2,166,407	689,305	31,126	472	4,448,128	4,183,514	2,091,263	711,379	29,826	452	(£ 11,633,610.)	(£ 11,034,680.)	(£ 10,829,845.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest			
		247	1260	1260	7	0	0%		0.59		0.19		3		2		5,470,735	5,490,862	2,571,457	814,231	36,925	559	5,145,756	5,377,921	2,418,705	800,131	36,268	550	4,983,484	4,883,203	2,342,431	827,477	34,814	527	(£ 13,209,331.)	(£ 12,510,349.)	(£ 12,096,309.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest			
		248	1440	1440	8	0	0%		0.59		0.19		3		2		6,053,920	6,269,730	2,845,577	927,072	42,160	639	5,682,516	6,140,655	2,671,003	910,958	41,409	627	5,500,211	5,576,419	2,585,312	942,416	39,756	602	(£ 14,784,858.)	(£ 13,986,018.)	(£ 13,520,396.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest			
		249	1620	1620	9	0	0%		0.59		0.19		3		2		6,637,106	7,048,599	3,119,697	1,039,913	47,395	718	6,219,276	6,903,389	2,923,301	1,021,785	46,551	705	6,016,937	6,269,634	2,828,194	1,057,356	44,699	677	(£ 16,360,381.)	(£ 15,461,686.)	(£ 14,944,484.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest			
		250	1800	1800	10	0	0%		0.59		0.19		3		2		7,220,291	7,827,467	3,393,817	1,152,754	52,631	797	6,756,036	7,666,123	3,175,599	1,132,611	51,692	783	6,533,664	6,962,850	3,071,075	1,172,296	49,641	752	(£ 17,935,905.)	(£ 16,937,355.)	(£ 16,368,571.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest			
		251	1980	1980	11	0	0%		0.59		0.19		3		2		7,826,892	8,614,932	3,678,942	1,267,132	57,928	878	7,292,796	8,428,857	3,427,897	1,243,438	56,834	861	7,050,390	7,656,066	3,313,957	1,287,236	54,583	827	(£ 19,567,710.)	(£ 18,413,024.)	(£ 17,792,659.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest			
		252	2160	2160	12	0	0%		0.59		0.19		3		2		8,414,209	9,395,317	3,955,004	1,380,244	63,174	957	7,829,556	9,191,591	3,680,195	1,354,264	61,975	939	7,567,117	8,349,281	3,556,638	1,402,175	59,525	902	(£ 21,153,166.)	(£ 19,888,693.)	(£ 19,216,746.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest			
		253	2340	2340	13	0	0%		0.59		0.19		3		2		9,001,527	10,175,703	4,231,066	1,493,357	68,420	1,037	8,366,316	9,954,325	3,932,493	1,465,091	67,117	1,017	8,083,843	9,042,497	3,799,720	1,517,115	64,468	977	(£ 22,738,622.)	(£ 21,364,361.)	(£ 20,640,833.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest			
		254	2520	2520	14	0	0%		0.59		0.19		3		2		9,613,085	10,964,988	4,518,523	1,608,060	73,730	1,117	8,927,317	10,725,959	4,196,185	1,577,509	72,322	1,096	8,624,811	9,744,613	4,053,995	1,633,646	69,473	1,053	(£ 24,382,345.)	(£ 22,898,298.)	(£ 22,123,189.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest			
		255	2700	2700	15	0	0%		0.59		0.19		3		2		10,203,708	11,746,587	4,796,138	1,721,390	78,985	1,197	9,467,383	11,489,906	4,450,037	1,688,553	77,472	1,174	9,144,843	10,439,042	4,298,431	1,748,803	74,424	1,128	(£ 25,975,747.)	(£ 24,381,912.)	(£ 23,555,222.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest			
	256	2880	2880	16	0	0%		0.59		0.19		3		2		10,794,332	12,528,186	5,073,754	1,834,719	84,240	1,276	10,029,486	12,261,945	4,714,247	1,801,043	82,680	1,253	9,664,875	11,133,471	4,542,866	1,863,960	79,375	1,203	(£ 27,569,148.)	(£ 25,918,497.)	(£ 24,987,255.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest				
	257	3060	3060	17	0	0%		0.59		0.19		3		2		11,407,873	13,318,200	5,362,143	1,949,553	89,555	1,357	10,595,225	13,035,318	4,980,167	1,913,773	87,898	1,332	10,207,826	11,836,315	4,798,074	1,980,622	84,386	1,279	(£ 29,217,639.)	(£ 27,463,823.)	(£ 26,474,377.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest				
	258	3240	3240	18	0	0%		0.59		0.19		3		2		12,001,141	14,100,770	5,641,002	2,063,056	94,816	1,437	11,140,690	13,801,248	5,236,556	2,025,171	93,062	1,410	10,730,503	12,531,716	5,043,752	2,096,952	89,344	1,354	(£ 30,817,397.)	(£ 28,960,415.)	(£ 27,912,767.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest				
	259	3420	3420	19	0	0%		0.59		0.19		3		2		12,594,409	14,883,339	5,919,860	2,176,559	100,078	1,516	11,686,155	14,567,178	5,492,946	2,136,569	98,226	1,488	11,253,179	13,227,116	5,289,430	2,211,283	94,301	1,429	(£ 32,417,155.)	(£ 30,457,007.)	(£ 29,351,157.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest				
	260	3600	3600	20	0	0%		0.59		0.19		3		2		13,187,678	15,665,909	6,198,719	2,290,061	105,340	1,596	12,231,619	15,333,108	5,749,335	2,247,967	103,391	1,567	11,775,856	13,922,516	5,535,109	2,326,613	99,259	1,504	(£ 34,016,913.)	(£ 31,953,599.)	(£ 30,789,546.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest				
	261	3780	3780	21	0	0%		0.59		0.19		3		2		13,780,944	16,448,479	6,477,578	2,403,564	110,602	1,676	12,777,084	16,099,038	6,005,725	2,359,365	108,555	1,645	12,298,532	14,617,917	5,780,787	2,441,943	104,217	1,579	(£ 35,616,670.)	(£ 33,450,192.)	(£ 32,227,936.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest				
	262	3960	3960	22	0	0%		0.59		0.19		3		2		14,374,212	17,231,049	6,756,437	2,517,067	115,864	1,756	13,322,549	16,864,968	6,262,115	2,470,763	113,719	1,723	12,821,209	15,313,317	6,026,465	2,557,274	109,175	1,654	(£ 37,216,428.)	(£ 34,946,784.)	(£ 33,666,325.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest				
	263	4140	4140	23	0	0%		0.59		0.19		3		2		14,967,479	18,013,619	7,035,295	2,630,570	121,126	1,835	13,868,014	17,630,897	6,518,504	2,582,161	118,884	1,801	13,343,886	16,008,717	6,272,144	2,672,604	114,132	1,729	(£ 38,816,186.)	(£ 36,443,376.)	(£ 35,104,715.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest				
	264	4320	4320	24	0	0%		0.59		0.19		3	</																														

X. APPENDICES

APPENDIX H RESULTS WORKSHEET CONTINUED

		Graphed Results															Sensitivities															Fully Automated															Semi Automated															Manual															Result and Ranking					
		Test	Pay/Hour	Bage/Hour	# of Short Haul Flights / Hour	# of Long Haul Flights / Hour	Peaking Factor %	High CAPEX Factor	Base Medium CAPEX Factor	Low CAPEX Factor	High OPEX Factor	Base Medium OPEX Factor	Low OPEX Factor	High Inflation Rate %	Base Inflation Rate %	Low Inflation Rate %	High Staff Loading Rate Bage/Min	Base Staff Loading Rate Bage/Min	Low Loading Rate Bage/Min	Baggage CAPEX £	Building CAPEX £	On Cost CAPEX £	Baggage OPEX £	Building OPEX £	Building Area m²	Baggage CAPEX £	Building CAPEX £	On Cost CAPEX £	Baggage OPEX £	Building OPEX £	Building Area m²	Baggage CAPEX £	Building CAPEX £	On Cost CAPEX £	Baggage OPEX £	Building OPEX £	Building Area m²	WLCC £ - Fully Automatic	WLCC £ - Semi Automatic	WLCC £ - Manual	WLCC £ - Fully Automatic	WLCC £ - Semi Automatic	WLCC £ - Manual																																							
Short Haul Only	High Inflation Rate	301	180	180	1	0	0%		0.59		0.59		7		2		1,971,621	817,652	926,738	425,999	17,116	259	1,925,196	801,518	904,917	419,744	16,825	255	1,898,551	729,572	892,393	431,168	16,152	245	(£ 4,683,396.)	(£ 4,519,138.)	(£ 4,557,440.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		302	360	360	2	0	0%		0.59		0.59		7		2		2,554,807	1,596,521	1,200,858	776,399	33,373	506	2,461,956	1,564,252	1,157,215	763,890	32,790	497	2,408,667	1,420,361	1,132,167	786,739	31,445	476	(£ 6,433,948.)	(£ 6,105,432.)	(£ 6,182,036.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		303	540	540	3	0	0%		0.59		0.59		7		2		3,137,993	2,375,389	1,474,978	1,126,800	49,631	752	2,998,716	2,326,986	1,409,513	1,108,035	48,756	739	2,918,782	2,111,149	1,371,941	1,142,309	46,738	708	(£ 8,164,499.)	(£ 7,691,725.)	(£ 7,806,632.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		304	720	720	4	0	0%		0.59		0.59		7		2		3,721,178	3,154,257	1,749,098	1,477,201	65,888	998	3,535,476	3,089,720	1,661,811	1,452,181	64,722	981	3,428,897	2,801,938	1,611,715	1,497,879	62,031	940	(£ 9,935,051.)	(£ 9,278,019.)	(£ 9,431,228.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		305	900	900	5	0	0%		0.59		0.59		7		2		4,304,364	3,933,125	2,023,218	1,827,601	82,146	1,245	4,072,236	3,852,454	1,914,109	1,796,327	80,688	1,223	3,939,013	3,492,726	1,851,489	1,853,450	77,324	1,172	(£ 11,685,602.)	(£ 10,864,312.)	(£ 11,055,824.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		306	1080	1080	6	0	0%		0.59		0.59		7		2		4,887,549	4,711,994	2,297,338	2,178,002	98,403	1,491	4,608,996	4,615,187	2,166,407	2,140,473	96,654	1,424	4,448,128	4,183,514	2,091,263	2,209,020	92,617	1,403	(£ 13,436,154.)	(£ 12,450,606.)	(£ 12,680,419.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		307	1260	1260	7	0	0%		0.59		0.59		7		2		5,470,735	5,490,862	2,571,457	2,528,403	114,661	1,737	5,145,756	5,377,921	2,418,705	2,484,618	112,620	1,706	4,983,484	4,883,203	2,342,431	2,569,532	108,107	1,638	(£ 15,186,705.)	(£ 14,036,900.)	(£ 14,413,844.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		308	1440	1440	8	0	0%		0.59		0.59		7		2		6,053,920	6,269,730	2,845,577	2,878,803	130,918	1,984	5,682,516	6,140,655	2,671,003	2,828,764	128,586	1,948	5,500,211	5,576,419	2,585,312	2,926,451	123,454	1,871	(£ 16,937,257.)	(£ 15,623,193.)	(£ 16,068,120.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		309	1620	1620	9	0	0%		0.59		0.59		7		2		6,637,106	7,048,599	3,119,697	3,229,204	147,175	2,230	6,219,276	6,903,389	2,923,301	3,172,910	144,552	2,190	6,016,937	6,269,634	2,828,194	3,283,369	138,801	2,103	(£ 18,687,809.)	(£ 17,209,487.)	(£ 17,722,397.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		310	1800	1800	10	0	0%		0.59		0.59		7		2		7,220,291	7,827,467	3,393,817	3,579,605	163,433	2,476	6,756,036	7,666,123	3,175,599	3,517,056	160,518	2,432	6,533,664	6,962,850	3,071,075	3,640,287	154,148	2,336	(£ 20,438,360.)	(£ 18,795,780.)	(£ 19,376,673.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		311	1980	1980	11	0	0%		0.59		0.59		7		2		7,826,892	8,614,932	3,678,942	3,934,779	179,881	2,725	7,292,796	8,428,857	3,427,897	3,861,202	176,484	2,674	7,050,390	7,656,066	3,313,957	3,997,205	169,495	2,568	(£ 22,294,030.)	(£ 20,382,074.)	(£ 21,030,949.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		312	2160	2160	12	0	0%		0.59		0.59		7		2		8,414,209	9,395,317	3,955,004	4,286,022	196,172	2,972	7,829,556	9,191,591	3,680,195	4,205,347	192,450	2,916	7,567,117	8,349,281	3,556,638	4,354,123	184,842	2,801	(£ 24,963,132.)	(£ 21,968,367.)	(£ 22,685,226.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		313	2340	2340	13	0	0%		0.59		0.59		7		2		9,001,527	10,175,703	4,231,066	4,637,265	212,463	3,219	8,366,316	9,954,325	3,932,493	4,549,493	208,416	3,158	8,083,843	9,042,497	3,799,720	4,711,042	200,189	3,033	(£ 25,832,234.)	(£ 23,554,661.)	(£ 24,339,502.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		314	2520	2520	14	0	0%		0.59		0.59		7		2		9,613,085	10,964,988	4,518,523	4,993,451	228,951	3,469	8,927,317	10,725,959	4,196,185	4,898,581	224,579	3,403	8,624,811	9,744,613	4,053,995	5,072,902	215,732	3,269	(£ 27,710,165.)	(£ 25,249,783.)	(£ 26,102,607.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		315	2700	2700	15	0	0%		0.59		0.59		7		2		10,203,708	11,746,587	4,796,138	5,345,368	245,268	3,716	9,467,383	11,489,906	4,450,037	5,243,401	240,572	3,645	9,144,843	10,439,042	4,298,431	5,430,494	231,106	3,502	(£ 29,494,107.)	(£ 26,850,917.)	(£ 27,771,724.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		316	2880	2880	16	0	0%		0.59		0.59		7		2		10,794,332	12,528,186	5,073,754	5,697,285	261,586	3,963	10,029,486	12,261,945	4,714,247	5,592,714	256,743	3,890	9,664,875	11,133,471	4,542,866	5,788,087	246,480	3,735	(£ 31,278,049.)	(£ 28,550,986.)	(£ 29,440,840.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		317	3060	3060	17	0	0%		0.59		0.59		7		2		11,407,873	13,318,200	5,362,143	6,053,875	278,090	4,213	10,595,225	13,035,318	4,980,167	5,942,768	272,945	4,136	10,207,826	11,836,315	4,798,074	6,150,351	262,040	3,970	(£ 33,164,883.)	(£ 30,267,379.)	(£ 31,212,849.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		318	3240	3240	18	0	0%		0.59		0.59		7		2		12,001,141	14,100,770	5,641,002	6,406,331	294,430	4,461	11,140,690	13,801,248	5,236,556	6,288,688	288,982	4,379	10,730,503	12,531,716	5,043,752	6,508,483	277,435	4,204	(£ 34,960,698.)	(£ 31,892,752.)	(£ 32,993,838.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		319	3420	3420	19	0	0%		0.59		0.59		7		2		12,594,409	14,883,339	5,919,860	6,758,787	310,769	4,709	11,686,155	14,567,178	5,492,946	6,634,609	305,018	4,621	11,253,179	13,227,116	5,289,430	6,866,614	292,830	4,437	(£ 36,756,512.)	(£ 33,518,125.)	(£ 34,574,827.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		320	3600	3600	20	0	0%		0.59		0.59		7		2		13,187,678	15,665,909	6,198,719	7,111,244	327,109	4,956	12,231,619	15,333,108	5,749,335	6,980,529	321,055	4,864	11,775,856	13,922,516	5,535,109	7,224,745	308,226	4,670	(£ 38,552,327.)	(£ 35,143,498.)	(£ 36,255,816.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		321	3780	3780	21	0	0%		0.59		0.59		7		2		13,780,944	16,448,479	6,477,578	7,463,700	343,448	5,204	12,777,084	16,099,038	6,005,725	7,326,450	337,092	5,107	12,298,532	14,617,917	5,780,787	7,582,877	323,621	4,903	(£ 40,348,141.)	(£ 36,768,871.)	(£ 37,936,805.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		322	3960	3960	22	0	0%		0.59		0.59		7		2		14,374,212	17,231,049	6,756,437	7,816,156	359,787	5,451	13,322,549	16,964,968	6,262,115	7,672,370	353,128	5,350	12,821,209	15,313,317	6,026,465	7,941,008	339,016	5,137	(£ 42,143,955.)	(£ 38,394,244.)	(£ 39,617,794.)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																																										
		323	4140	4140	23	0	0%		0.59		0.59		7		2		14,967,479	18,013,619	7,035,295	8,168,612	376,127</																																																													

X. APPENDICES

		Graphed Results										Sensitivities										Fully Automated										Semi Automated										Manual										Graphed Results					Ranking Results				
		Test	Pax/Hour	Bags/Hour	# of Short Haul Flights / Hour	# of Long Haul Flights / Hour	Peaking Factor %	High CAPEX Factor	Base Medium CAPEX Factor	Low CAPEX Factor	High OPEX Factor	Base Medium OPEX Factor	Low OPEX Factor	High Inflation Rate %	Base Inflation Rate %	Low Inflation Rate %	High Staff Loading Rate Bags/Min	Base Staff Loading Rate Bags/Min	Low Loading Rate Bags/Min	Baggage CAPEX £	Building CAPEX £	On Cost CAPEX £	Baggage OPEX £	Building OPEX £	Building Area m²	Baggage CAPEX £	Building CAPEX £	On Cost CAPEX £	Baggage OPEX £	Building OPEX £	Building Area m²	Baggage CAPEX £	Building CAPEX £	On Cost CAPEX £	Baggage OPEX £	Building OPEX £	Building Area m²	WLCC £ - Fully Automatic	WLCC £ - Semi Automatic	WLCC £ - Manual	WLCC £ - Fully Automatic	WLCC £ - Semi Automatic	WLCC £ - Manual																		
Low Inflation Rate	Short Haul Only	361	180	180	1	0	0%	0.59		0.59					1	1	2			1,971,621	817,652	926,738	425,999	17,116	259	1,925,196	801,518	904,917	419,744	16,825	255	1,898,551	729,572	892,393	431,168	16,152	245	(£ 4,305,102)	(£ 4,167,121)	(£ 4,162,267)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest																		
		362	360	360	2	0	0%	0.59		0.59					1	1	2			2,554,807	1,596,521	1,200,858	776,399	33,373	506	2,461,956	1,564,252	1,157,215	763,890	32,790	497	2,408,667	1,420,361	1,132,167	786,739	31,445	476	(£ 5,984,244)	(£ 5,706,280)	(£ 5,698,573)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest																		
		363	540	540	3	0	0%	0.59		0.59					1	1	2			3,137,993	2,375,389	1,474,978	1,126,800	46,631	752	2,998,716	1,326,986	1,409,513	1,108,035	48,756	739	2,918,782	1,211,149	1,371,941	1,142,309	46,738	708	(£ 7,663,385)	(£ 7,249,439)	(£ 7,234,680)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest																		
		364	720	720	4	0	0%	0.59		0.59					1	1	2			3,721,178	3,154,257	1,749,098	1,477,201	65,888	998	3,535,476	3,089,720	1,661,811	1,452,181	64,722	981	3,428,897	2,801,938	1,611,715	1,497,879	62,031	940	(£ 9,342,526)	(£ 8,790,599)	(£ 8,771,186)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest																		
		365	900	900	5	0	0%	0.59		0.59					1	1	2			4,304,364	3,933,125	2,023,218	1,827,601	82,146	1,245	4,072,236	3,852,454	1,914,109	1,796,327	80,688	1,223	3,939,013	3,492,726	1,851,489	1,853,450	77,324	1,172	(£ 11,021,668)	(£ 10,331,758)	(£ 10,307,492)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest																		
Long Haul Only	366	1080	1080	6	0	0%	0.59		0.59					1	1	2			4,887,549	4,711,994	2,297,338	2,178,002	98,403	1,491	4,608,996	4,615,187	2,166,407	2,140,473	96,654	1,464	4,449,128	4,183,514	2,091,263	2,209,020	92,617	1,403	(£ 12,700,809)	(£ 11,872,917)	(£ 11,843,798)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest																			
	367	1260	1260	7	0	0%	0.59		0.59					1	1	2			5,470,735	5,490,862	2,571,457	2,528,403	114,661	1,737	5,145,756	5,377,921	2,418,705	2,484,618	112,620	1,706	4,983,484	4,883,203	2,342,431	2,569,532	108,107	1,638	(£ 14,379,959)	(£ 13,414,077)	(£ 13,468,304)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																			
	368	1440	1440	8	0	0%	0.59		0.59					1	1	2			6,053,920	6,269,730	2,845,577	2,878,803	130,918	1,984	5,682,516	6,140,655	2,671,003	2,828,764	128,586	1,948	5,500,211	5,576,419	2,585,312	2,926,451	123,454	1,871	(£ 16,059,092)	(£ 14,955,236)	(£ 15,028,665)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest																			
	369	1620	1620	9	0	0%	0.59		0.59					1																																															

X. APPENDICES

APPENDIX H RESULTS WORKSHEET CONTINUED

		Graphed Results						Sensitivities										Fully Automated						Semi Automated						Manual						Result and Ranking					
		Test	Pay/Hour	Bags/Hour	# of Short Haul Flights / Hour	# of Long Haul Flights / Hour	Peaking Factor %	High CAPEX Factor	Base Medium CAPEX Factor	Low CAPEX Factor	High OPEX Factor	Base Medium OPEX Factor	Low OPEX Factor	High Inflation Rate %	Base Inflation Rate %	Low Inflation Rate %	High Staff Loading Rate Bags/Min	Base Staff Loading Rate Bags/Min	Low Loading Rate Bags/Min	Baggage CAPEX £	Building CAPEX £	On Cost CAPEX £	Baggage OPEX £	Building OPEX £	Building Area m²	Baggage CAPEX £	Building CAPEX £	On Cost CAPEX £	Baggage OPEX £	Building OPEX £	Building Area m²	Baggage CAPEX £	Building CAPEX £	On Cost CAPEX £	Baggage OPEX £	Building OPEX £	Building Area m²	WLCC £ - Fully Automatic	WLCC £ - Semi Automatic	WLCC £ - Manual	WLCC £ - Fully Automatic
Short Haul Only	High Staff loading Rate Bags/Min	421	180	180	1	0	0%	0.59	0.59	3	3	1,971,621	816,498	926,738	398,128	17,090	259	1,925,196	800,529	904,917	395,854	16,803	255	1,898,551	728,253	892,393	399,316	16,123	244	(£ 4,124,544.)	(£ 4,020,194.)	(£ 3,945,426.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest						
		422	360	360	2	0	0%	0.59	0.59	3	3	2,554,807	1,594,212	1,200,858	720,657	33,322	505	2,461,956	1,562,273	1,157,215	716,111	32,747	496	2,408,667	1,417,722	1,132,167	723,033	31,386	476	(£ 5,536,506.)	(£ 5,327,804.)	(£ 5,178,268.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest						
		423	540	540	3	0	0%	0.59	0.59	3	3	3,137,993	2,371,926	1,474,978	1,043,187	49,554	751	2,998,716	2,324,018	1,409,513	1,036,367	48,691	738	2,918,782	2,107,192	1,371,941	1,046,751	46,650	707	(£ 6,948,467.)	(£ 6,635,415.)	(£ 6,411,111.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest						
		424	720	720	4	0	0%	0.59	0.59	3	3	3,721,178	3,149,640	1,749,098	1,365,717	65,786	997	3,535,476	3,085,762	1,661,811	1,356,623	64,635	979	3,428,897	2,796,661	1,611,715	1,370,469	61,914	938	(£ 8,360,429.)	(£ 7,943,026.)	(£ 7,643,954.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest						
		425	900	900	5	0	0%	0.59	0.59	3	3	4,304,364	3,927,354	2,023,218	1,688,246	82,018	1,243	4,072,236	3,847,507	1,914,109	1,676,880	80,579	1,221	3,939,013	3,486,130	1,851,489	1,694,186	77,178	1,169	(£ 9,772,390.)	(£ 9,250,637.)	(£ 8,876,796.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest						
		426	1080	1080	6	0	0%	0.59	0.59	3	3	4,887,549	4,705,068	2,297,338	2,010,776	98,250	1,489	4,608,996	4,609,251	2,166,407	1,997,136	98,523	1,462	4,448,128	4,175,599	2,091,263	2,017,904	92,442	1,401	(£ 11,184,352.)	(£ 10,558,248.)	(£ 10,109,639.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest						
		427	1260	1260	7	0	0%	0.59	0.59	3	3	5,470,735	5,482,782	2,571,457	2,333,305	114,482	1,735	5,145,756	5,370,996	2,418,705	2,317,392	112,467	1,704	4,983,484	4,873,969	2,342,431	2,346,564	107,903	1,635	(£ 12,596,313.)	(£ 11,865,859.)	(£ 11,436,505.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest						
		428	1440	1440	8	0	0%	0.59	0.59	3	3	6,053,920	6,260,496	2,845,577	2,655,835	130,714	1,981	5,682,516	6,132,740	2,671,003	2,637,649	128,411	1,946	5,500,211	5,565,865	2,585,312	2,671,630	123,221	1,867	(£ 14,008,275.)	(£ 13,173,469.)	(£ 12,694,990.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest						
		429	1620	1620	9	0	0%	0.59	0.59	3	3	6,637,106	7,038,210	3,119,697	2,978,365	146,945	2,226	6,219,276	6,894,485	2,923,301	2,957,905	144,355	2,187	6,016,937	6,257,762	2,828,194	2,996,695	138,538	2,099	(£ 15,420,236.)	(£ 14,481,080.)	(£ 13,953,475.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest						
		430	1800	1800	10	0	0%	0.59	0.59	3	3	7,220,291	7,815,924	3,393,817	3,300,894	163,177	2,472	6,756,036	7,656,229	3,175,599	3,278,161	160,299	2,429	6,533,664	6,949,658	3,071,075	3,321,761	153,856	2,331	(£ 16,832,198.)	(£ 15,788,691.)	(£ 15,211,960.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest						
		431	1980	1980	11	0	0%	0.59	0.59	3	3	7,826,892	8,602,235	3,678,942	3,628,198	179,599	2,721	7,292,796	8,417,974	3,427,897	3,598,417	176,243	2,670	7,050,390	7,641,555	3,313,957	3,646,827	169,174	2,563	(£ 18,334,977.)	(£ 17,096,302.)	(£ 16,470,446.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest						
		432	2160	2160	12	0	0%	0.59	0.59	3	3	8,414,209	9,381,466	3,955,004	3,951,570	195,865	2,968	7,829,556	9,179,718	3,680,195	3,918,674	192,187	2,912	7,567,117	8,333,451	3,556,838	3,971,892	184,491	2,795	(£ 19,762,965.)	(£ 18,403,913.)	(£ 17,728,931.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest						
		433	2340	2340	13	0	0%	0.59	0.59	3	3	9,001,527	10,160,697	4,231,066	4,274,942	212,130	3,214	8,366,316	9,941,463	3,932,493	4,238,930	208,131	3,154	8,083,843	9,025,348	3,799,720	4,296,958	199,809	3,027	(£ 21,190,953.)	(£ 19,711,523.)	(£ 18,987,416.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest						
		434	2520	2520	14	0	0%	0.59	0.59	3	3	9,613,085	10,948,828	4,518,523	4,603,256	228,593	3,464	8,927,317	10,712,107	4,196,185	4,564,129	224,272	3,398	8,624,811	9,726,144	4,053,995	4,626,966	215,324	3,262	(£ 22,712,964.)	(£ 21,113,157.)	(£ 20,339,924.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest						
		435	2700	2700	15	0	0%	0.59	0.59	3	3	10,203,708	11,729,273	4,796,138	4,927,302	244,885	3,710	9,467,383	11,475,065	4,450,037	4,885,059	240,243	3,640	9,144,843	10,419,254	4,298,431	4,952,705	230,668	3,495	(£ 24,153,773.)	(£ 22,433,589.)	(£ 21,611,231.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest						
		436	2880	2880	16	0	0%	0.59	0.59	3	3	10,794,332	12,509,717	5,073,754	5,251,348	261,177	3,957	10,029,486	12,246,115	4,714,247	5,210,482	256,393	3,885	9,664,875	11,112,365	4,542,866	5,278,445	246,013	3,727	(£ 25,594,582.)	(£ 23,839,496.)	(£ 22,882,537.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest						
		437	3060	3060	17	0	0%	0.59	0.59	3	3	11,407,873	13,298,577	5,362,143	5,580,067	277,656	4,207	10,595,225	13,018,499	4,980,167	5,536,647	272,573	4,130	10,207,826	11,813,889	4,798,074	5,608,857	261,543	3,963	(£ 27,124,286.)	(£ 25,259,507.)	(£ 24,242,738.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest						
		438	3240	3240	18	0	0%	0.59	0.59	3	3	12,001,141	14,079,992	5,641,002	5,904,652	293,970	4,454	11,140,890	13,783,439	5,236,556	5,858,678	288,587	4,373	10,730,503	12,507,970	5,043,752	5,935,136	276,909	4,196	(£ 28,575,352.)	(£ 26,600,881.)	(£ 25,524,302.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest						
		439	3420	3420	19	0	0%	0.59	0.59	3	3	12,594,409	14,861,408	5,919,860	6,229,238	310,284	4,701	11,686,155	14,548,380	5,492,946	6,180,709	304,602	4,615	11,253,179	13,202,051	5,289,430	6,261,414	292,275	4,428	(£ 30,026,419.)	(£ 27,942,254.)	(£ 26,805,865.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest						
		440	3600	3600	20	0	0%	0.59	0.59	3	3	13,187,676	15,642,824	6,198,719	6,553,823	326,597	4,948	12,231,619	15,313,320	5,749,335	6,502,740	320,617	4,858	11,775,856	13,896,133	5,535,109	6,587,693	307,641	4,661	(£ 31,477,485.)	(£ 29,283,628.)	(£ 28,087,429.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest						
		441	3780	3780	21	0	0%	0.59	0.59	3	3	13,780,944	16,424,239	6,477,578	6,878,408	342,911	5,196	12,777,084	16,078,261	6,005,725	6,824,771	336,632	5,100	12,298,532	14,590,214	5,780,787	6,913,972	323,008	4,894	(£ 32,928,552.)	(£ 30,625,001.)	(£ 29,368,993.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest						
		442	3960	3960	22	0	0%	0.59	0.59	3	3	14,374,212	17,205,655	6,756,437	7,202,993	359,225	5,443	13,322,549	16,843,201	6,262,115	7,146,802	352,647	5,343	12,821,209	15,284,295	6,026,465	7,240,251	338,374	5,127	(£ 34,379,618.)	(£ 31,966,375.)	(£ 30,650,556.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest						
		443	4140	4140	23	0	0%	0.59	0.59	3	3	14,967,479	17,987,070	7,035,295	7,527,578	375,539	5,690	13,868,014	17,608,141	6,518,504	7,468,833	368,661	5,586	13,343,886	15,978,376	6,272,144	7,566,529	353,740	5,360	(£ 35,830,684.)	(£ 33,307,748.)	(£ 31,932,120.)	3rd Most expensive	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest						
		444	4320	4320	24	0	0%	0.59	0.59	3	3	15,560,747	18,768,486	7,314,154	7,852,164	391,853	5,937	14,413,479	18,373,082	6,774,894	7,790,864	384,676	5,828	13,866,56																	

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APPENDIX H RESULTS WORKSHEET CONTINUED

		Sensitivities															Fully Automated										Semi Automated										Manual										Result and Ranking					
		Graphed Results																																								Graphed Results			Ranking Results							
		Test	Plat/Hour	Baggs/Hour	# of Short Haul Flights / Hour	# of Long Haul Flights / Hour	Peaking Factor %	High CAPEX Factor	Base Medium CAPEX Factor	Low CAPEX Factor	High OPEX Factor	Base Medium OPEX Factor	Low OPEX Factor	High Inflation Rate %	Base Inflation Rate %	Low Inflation Rate %	High Staff Loading Rate Bags/Min	Base Staff Loading Rate Bags/Min	Low Loading Rate Bags/Min	Baggage CAPEX £	Building CAPEX £	On Cost CAPEX £	Baggage OPEX £	Building OPEX £	Building Area m²	Baggage CAPEX £	Building CAPEX £	On Cost CAPEX £	Baggage OPEX £	Building OPEX £	Building Area m²	Baggage CAPEX £	Building CAPEX £	On Cost CAPEX £	Baggage OPEX £	Building OPEX £	Building Area m²	WILCC £ - Fully Automatic	WILCC £ - Semi Automatic	WILCC £ - Manual	WILCC £ - Fully Automatic	WILCC £ - Semi Automatic	WILCC £ - Manual									
Short Haul Only	Low Loading Rate Bags/Min	481	180	180	1	0	0%	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	3	3	3	1	1,971,621	821,115	926,738	509,612	17,193	260	1,925,196	804,486	904,917	491,412	16,890	256	1,898,551	733,530	892,393	526,726	16,239	246	(£ 5,273,889)	(£ 5,005,347)	(£ 5,258,963)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest											
		482	360	360	2	0	0%	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	3	3	3	1	2,554,807	1,603,446	1,200,858	943,626	33,527	508	2,461,956	1,570,188	1,157,215	907,226	32,922	499	2,408,667	1,428,276	1,132,167	977,854	31,620	479	(£ 7,835,196)	(£ 7,298,110)	(£ 7,805,343)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest											
		483	540	540	3	0	0%	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	3	3	3	1	3,137,993	2,385,778	1,474,978	1,377,639	49,861	755	2,998,716	2,335,890	1,409,513	1,323,040	48,954	742	2,918,782	2,123,022	1,371,941	1,428,982	47,001	712	(£ 10,396,503)	(£ 9,590,874)	(£ 10,351,723)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest											
		484	720	720	4	0	0%	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	3	3	3	1	3,721,178	3,168,109	1,749,098	1,811,653	66,195	1,003	3,535,476	3,101,592	1,661,811	1,738,855	64,985	985	3,428,897	2,817,768	1,611,715	1,880,111	62,382	945	(£ 12,967,809)	(£ 11,893,638)	(£ 12,898,103)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest											
		485	900	900	5	0	0%	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	3	3	3	1	4,304,364	3,950,440	2,023,218	2,245,667	82,529	1,250	4,072,236	3,867,294	1,914,109	2,154,669	81,017	1,228	3,939,013	3,512,514	1,851,489	2,331,239	77,762	1,178	(£ 15,519,116)	(£ 14,176,402)	(£ 15,444,483)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest											
		486	1080	1080	6	0	0%	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	3	3	3	1	4,887,549	4,732,771	2,297,338	2,679,681	98,863	1,498	4,608,996	4,632,996	2,166,407	2,570,483	97,049	1,470	4,448,128	4,207,260	2,091,263	2,782,367	93,143	1,411	(£ 18,080,422)	(£ 16,469,166)	(£ 17,990,863)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest											
		487	1260	1260	7	0	0%	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	3	3	3	1	5,470,735	5,515,102	2,571,457	3,113,694	115,197	1,745	5,145,756	5,398,699	2,418,705	2,986,297	113,080	1,713	4,983,484	4,910,906	2,342,431	3,238,437	108,721	1,647	(£ 20,641,729)	(£ 18,761,929)	(£ 20,631,266)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest											
		488	1440	1440	8	0	0%	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	3	3	3	1	6,053,920	6,297,433	2,845,577	3,547,708	131,531	1,993	5,682,516	6,164,401	2,671,003	3,402,111	129,112	1,956	5,500,211	5,608,079	2,585,312	3,690,913	124,155	1,881	(£ 23,203,036)	(£ 21,054,693)	(£ 23,203,288)	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest	3rd Most expensive											
		489	1620	1620	9	0	0%	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	3	3	3	1	6,637,106	7,079,764	3,119,697	3,981,722	147,865	2,240	6,219,276	6,930,103	2,923,301	3,817,925	145,143	2,199	6,016,937	6,305,252	2,828,194	4,143,389	139,590	2,115	(£ 25,764,342)	(£ 23,347,457)	(£ 25,775,311)	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest	3rd Most expensive											
		490	1800	1800	10	0	0%	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	3	3	3	1	7,220,291	7,862,096	3,393,817	4,415,736	164,199	2,488	6,756,036	7,695,805	3,175,599	4,233,740	161,175	2,442	6,533,664	7,002,426	3,071,075	4,595,865	155,024	2,349	(£ 28,325,649)	(£ 25,640,221)	(£ 28,347,333)	2nd Cheapest	1st Cheapest	3rd Most expensive											
		491	1980	1980	11	0	0%	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	3	3	3	1	7,826,892	8,653,023	3,678,942	4,854,523	180,724	2,738	7,292,796	8,461,507	3,427,897	4,649,554	177,207	2,685	7,050,390	7,699,599	3,313,957	5,048,341	170,459	2,583	(£ 30,977,773)	(£ 27,932,984)	(£ 30,919,356)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest											
		492	2160	2160	12	0	0%	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	3	3	3	1	8,414,209	9,436,872	3,955,004	5,289,380	197,091	2,986	7,829,556	9,227,209	3,680,195	5,066,368	193,238	2,928	7,567,117	8,396,772	3,556,638	5,500,818	185,893	2,817	(£ 33,555,106)	(£ 30,225,748)	(£ 33,491,378)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest											
		493	2340	2340	13	0	0%	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	3	3	3	1	9,001,527	10,220,720	4,231,066	5,724,236	213,459	3,234	8,366,316	9,992,911	3,932,493	5,481,182	209,270	3,171	8,083,843	9,093,945	3,799,720	5,953,294	201,328	3,050	(£ 36,132,439)	(£ 32,516,512)	(£ 36,063,401)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest											
		494	2520	2520	14	0	0%	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	3	3	3	1	9,613,085	11,013,468	4,518,523	6,164,034	230,024	3,485	8,927,317	10,767,513	4,196,185	5,901,938	225,499	3,417	8,624,811	9,800,019	4,053,995	6,410,712	216,959	3,287	(£ 38,803,795)	(£ 34,905,299)	(£ 38,729,446)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest											
		495	2700	2700	15	0	0%	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	3	3	3	1	10,203,708	11,798,530	4,796,138	6,599,565	246,418	3,734	9,467,383	11,534,429	4,450,037	6,318,427	241,557	3,660	9,144,843	10,498,406	4,298,431	6,863,862	232,420	3,522	(£ 41,393,950)	(£ 37,210,884)	(£ 41,314,290)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest											
		496	2880	2880	16	0	0%	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	3	3	3	1	10,794,332	12,583,592	5,073,754	7,035,095	262,813	3,982	10,029,486	12,309,436	4,714,247	6,739,408	257,795	3,906	9,664,875	11,196,792	4,542,866	7,317,012	247,882	3,756	(£ 43,984,104)	(£ 39,601,944)	(£ 43,899,134)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest											
		497	3060	3060	17	0	0%	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	3	3	3	1	11,407,873	13,377,068	5,362,143	7,475,298	279,394	4,233	10,595,225	13,085,777	4,980,167	7,161,130	274,062	4,152	10,207,826	11,903,594	4,798,074	7,774,835	263,529	3,993	(£ 46,663,153)	(£ 42,007,108)	(£ 46,572,872)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest											
		498	3240	3240	18	0	0%	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	3	3	3	1	12,001,141	14,163,101	5,641,002	7,911,367	295,810	4,482	11,140,890	13,854,675	5,236,556	7,578,719	290,164	4,396	10,730,503	12,602,952	5,043,752	8,228,524	279,012	4,227	(£ 49,263,565)	(£ 44,333,634)	(£ 49,167,973)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest											
		499	3420	3420	19	0	0%	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	3	3	3	1	12,594,409	14,949,134	5,919,860	8,347,436	312,226	4,731	11,686,155	14,623,573	5,492,946	7,996,308	306,267	4,640	11,253,179	13,302,310	5,289,430	8,682,213	294,495	4,462	(£ 51,863,976)	(£ 46,660,161)	(£ 51,763,074)	3rd Most expensive	1st Cheapest	2nd Cheapest											
		500	3600	3600	20	0	0%	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.59	3	3	3	1	13,187,676	15,735,167	6,198,719	8,783,506	328,642	4,979	12,231,619	15,392,471	5,749,335	8,413,897	322,369	4,884	11,775,856	14,001,667	5,535,109	9,135,902	309,978	4,697	(£ 54,464,388)	(£ 48,986,68															

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APPENDIX I WLCC NPV (DISCOUNTED) WORKSHEET – BHS SAMPLE DATA

Year "n"						0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	
						Fully Automatic BHS (Year in service)																
Item	Name	(£)	Year in service	Life	Sub Totals £	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	2025	2026	2027	
1	Capital cost	CAPEX (COST)																				
2	Baggage Building CAPEX	(£ 34,193,487.)	2013	15		£ 0.	(£ 34,193,487.)	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	
3	Baggage System CAPEX	(£ 32,744,905.)	2013	15		£ 0.	(£ 32,744,905.)	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	
4	Construction capitalized "On-cost assets" CAPEX	(£ 15,391,375.)	2013	15		£ 0.	(£ 15,391,375.)	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	
5																						
6	Residual asset values (Year 15)	Residual asset value (Year 15)																				
7	Baggage Building CAPEX	£ 0.																			£ 0.	
8	Baggage System CAPEX	£ 0.																			£ 0.	
9	Construction capitalized "On-cost assets" CAPEX	£ 0.																			£ 0.	
10						CASH OUT	CAPEX _{Total Net}	£ 0.	(£ 82,329,767.)	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	
11	Operating cost	OPEX / Annum (Year 1) (COST)																				
12	Baggage OPEX (including inflation)	(£ 19,157,910.)				£ 0.	(£ 19,157,910.)	(£ 19,732,647.)	(£ 20,324,627.)	(£ 20,934,366.)	(£ 21,562,397.)	(£ 22,209,268.)	(£ 22,875,546.)	(£ 23,561,813.)	(£ 24,268,667.)	(£ 24,996,727.)	(£ 25,746,629.)	(£ 26,519,028.)	(£ 27,314,599.)	(£ 28,134,037.)	(£ 28,978,058.)	
13	Building OPEX (including inflation)	(£ 722,499.)				£ 0.	(£ 722,499.)	(£ 744,174.)	(£ 766,499.)	(£ 789,494.)	(£ 813,179.)	(£ 837,574.)	(£ 862,702.)	(£ 888,583.)	(£ 915,240.)	(£ 942,697.)	(£ 970,978.)	(£ 1,000,108.)	(£ 1,030,111.)	(£ 1,061,014.)	(£ 1,092,844.)	
14	Sub total: OPEX _{Total Net}	(£ 722,499.)				CASH OUT	OPEX _{Total Net}	£ 0.	(£ 19,880,409.)	(£ 20,476,821.)	(£ 21,091,126.)	(£ 21,723,860.)	(£ 22,375,575.)	(£ 23,046,843.)	(£ 23,738,248.)	(£ 24,450,395.)	(£ 25,183,907.)	(£ 25,939,425.)	(£ 26,717,607.)	(£ 27,519,135.)	(£ 28,344,710.)	(£ 29,195,051.)
15	Income from Bag Charge	BAG CHARGE / Annum (Year 1) INCOME																				
16	Bag charge income per annum: Bags / Hour x 18hours/day x 365 days/year x 50% system utilisation x OPEX Factor x Bag charge + inflation	£ 19,187,685.				CASH IN	BAG CHARGE _{Total Net}	£ 0.	£ 19,187,685.	£ 19,763,316.	£ 20,356,215.	£ 20,966,901.	£ 21,595,909.	£ 22,243,786.	£ 22,911,099.	£ 23,598,432.	£ 24,306,385.	£ 25,035,577.	£ 25,786,644.	£ 26,560,243.	£ 27,357,051.	£ 28,177,762.
17						Net Cash Flow		£ 0.	(£ 83,022,491.)	(£ 713,506.)	(£ 734,911.)	(£ 756,958.)	(£ 779,667.)	(£ 803,057.)	(£ 827,149.)	(£ 851,963.)	(£ 877,522.)	(£ 903,848.)	(£ 930,963.)	(£ 958,892.)	(£ 987,659.)	(£ 1,017,289.)
18						DCF Rate in YEAR "n"		1.000	0.927	0.859	0.797	0.738	0.685	0.635	0.588	0.545	0.505	0.469	0.434	0.403	0.373	0.346
19						Present Value		£ 0.	(£ 76,961,753.)	(£ 613,135.)	(£ 585,426.)	(£ 558,970.)	(£ 533,710.)	(£ 509,591.)	(£ 486,562.)	(£ 464,573.)	(£ 443,579.)	(£ 423,533.)	(£ 404,393.)	(£ 386,118.)	(£ 368,669.)	(£ 352,008.)
						Cummulative NPV		£ 0.	(£ 76,961,753.)	(£ 77,574,888.)	(£ 78,160,314.)	(£ 78,719,284.)	(£ 79,252,994.)	(£ 79,762,584.)	(£ 80,249,146.)	(£ 80,713,720.)	(£ 81,157,298.)	(£ 81,580,831.)	(£ 81,985,224.)	(£ 82,371,342.)	(£ 82,740,011.)	(£ 83,092,019.)
19	Life end (15 years) WLCC (Discounted to Present Day Value)	(£ 83,428,120.)																				

						Semi Automatic BHS (Year in service)																
Item	Name	(£)	Year in service	Life	Sub Totals £	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	2025	2026	2027	
1	Capital cost	CAPEX (COST)																				
2	Baggage Building CAPEX	(£ 33,278,283.)	2013	15		£ 0.	(£ 33,278,283.)	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	
3	Baggage System CAPEX	(£ 30,115,749.)	2013	15		£ 0.	(£ 30,115,749.)	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	
4	Construction capitalized "On-cost assets" CAPEX	(£ 14,155,569.)	2013	15		£ 0.	(£ 14,155,569.)	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	
5																						
6	Residual asset values (Year 15)	Residual asset value (Year 15)																				
7	Baggage Building CAPEX	£ 0.																			£ 0.	
8	Baggage System CAPEX	£ 0.																			£ 0.	
9	Construction capitalized "On-cost assets" CAPEX	£ 0.																			£ 0.	
10						CASH OUT	CAPEX _{Total Net}	£ 0.	(£ 77,549,601.)	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	
11	Operating cost	OPEX / Annum (Year 1) (COST)																				
12	Baggage OPEX (including inflation)	(£ 18,798,446.)				£ 0.	(£ 18,798,446.)	(£ 19,362,399.)	(£ 19,943,271.)	(£ 20,541,569.)	(£ 21,157,816.)	(£ 21,792,551.)	(£ 22,446,327.)	(£ 23,119,717.)	(£ 23,813,309.)	(£ 24,527,708.)	(£ 25,263,539.)	(£ 26,021,445.)	(£ 26,802,089.)	(£ 27,606,151.)	(£ 28,434,336.)	
13	Building OPEX (including inflation)	(£ 705,852.)				£ 0.	(£ 705,852.)	(£ 727,027.)	(£ 748,838.)	(£ 771,303.)	(£ 794,442.)	(£ 818,276.)	(£ 842,824.)	(£ 868,109.)	(£ 894,152.)	(£ 920,976.)	(£ 948,606.)	(£ 977,064.)	(£ 1,006,376.)	(£ 1,036,567.)	(£ 1,067,664.)	
14	Sub total: OPEX _{Total Net}	(£ 705,852.)				CASH OUT	OPEX _{Total Net}	£ 0.	(£ 19,504,297.)	(£ 20,089,426.)	(£ 20,692,109.)	(£ 21,312,872.)	(£ 21,952,259.)	(£ 22,610,826.)	(£ 23,289,151.)	(£ 23,987,826.)	(£ 24,707,460.)	(£ 25,448,684.)	(£ 26,212,145.)	(£ 26,998,509.)	(£ 27,808,464.)	(£ 28,642,718.)
15	Income from Bag Charge	BAG CHARGE / Annum (Year 1) INCOME																				
16	Bag charge income per annum: Bags / Hour x 18hours/day x 365 days/year x 50% system utilisation x OPEX Factor x Bag charge + inflation	£ 19,187,685.				CASH IN	BAG CHARGE _{Total Net}	£ 0.	£ 19,187,685.	£ 19,763,316.	£ 20,356,215.	£ 20,966,901.	£ 21,595,909.	£ 22,243,786.	£ 22,911,099.	£ 23,598,432.	£ 24,306,385.	£ 25,035,577.	£ 25,786,644.	£ 26,560,243.	£ 27,357,051.	£ 28,177,762.
17						Net Cash Flow		£ 0.	(£ 77,866,214.)	(£ 326,111.)	(£ 335,894.)	(£ 345,971.)	(£ 356,350.)	(£ 367,041.)	(£ 378,052.)	(£ 389,393.)	(£ 401,075.)	(£ 413,107.)	(£ 425,501.)	(£ 438,266.)	(£ 451,414.)	(£ 464,956.)
18						DCF Rate in YEAR "n"		1.000	0.927	0.859	0.797	0.738	0.685	0.635	0.588	0.545	0.505	0.469	0.434	0.403	0.373	0.346
19						Present Value		£ 0.	(£ 72,181,890.)	(£ 280,236.)	(£ 267,572.)	(£ 255,480.)	(£ 243,934.)	(£ 232,911.)	(£ 222,385.)	(£ 212,335.)	(£ 202,740.)	(£ 193,577.)	(£ 184,829.)	(£ 176,477.)	(£ 168,502.)	(£ 160,887.)
						Cummulative NPV		£ 0.	(£ 72,181,890.)	(£ 72,462,126.)	(£ 72,729,697.)	(£ 72,985,177.)	(£ 73,229,111.)	(£ 73,462,022.)	(£ 73,684,407.)	(£ 73,896,742.)	(£ 74,099,481.)	(£ 74,293,059.)	(£ 74,477,888.)	(£ 74,654,365.)	(£ 74,822,867.)	(£ 74,983,754.)
19	Life end (15 years) WLCC (Discounted to Present Day Value)	(£ 75,137,370.)																				

						Manual BHS (Year in service)																
Item	Name	(£)	Year in service	Life	Sub Totals £	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	2025	2026	2027	
1	Capital cost	CAPEX (COST)																				
2	Baggage Building CAPEX	(£ 37,317,574.)	2013	15		£ 0.	(£ 37,317,574.)	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	
3	Baggage System CAPEX	(£ 29,611,033.)	2013	15		£ 0.	(£ 29,611,033.)	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	
4	Construction capitalized "On-cost assets" CAPEX	(£ 13,918,334.)	2013	15		£ 0.	(£ 13,918,334.)	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	£ 0.	
5																						
6	Residual asset values (Year 15)	Residual asset value (Year 15)																				

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APPENDIX J SUBROUTINE MACRO: EXPERIMENTATION DATA

INPUT AND DATA RECORDING

```
'Macro
'
' Keyboard Shortcut: Ctrl+n
'
    Range("F16:T16").Select
    Selection.Copy
    Range("F14").Select
    Selection.PasteSpecial Paste:=xlPasteValues, Operation:=xlNone, SkipBlanks _
        :=False, Transpose:=False
    Range("D12:AO12").Select
    Application.CutCopyMode = False
    Selection.Copy
    ActiveWindow.SmallScroll ToRight:=-19
    Range("D16").Select
    Selection.PasteSpecial Paste:=xlPasteValues, Operation:=xlNone, SkipBlanks _
        :=False, Transpose:=False
'
Comment: Macro Repeated F16:T16 to F75:T75
'
    Range("F75:T75").Select
    Selection.Copy
    Range("F14").Select
    Selection.PasteSpecial Paste:=xlPasteValues, Operation:=xlNone, SkipBlanks _
        :=False, Transpose:=False
    Range("D12:AO12").Select
    Application.CutCopyMode = False
    Selection.Copy
    ActiveWindow.SmallScroll ToRight:=-19
    Range("D75").Select
    Selection.PasteSpecial Paste:=xlPasteValues, Operation:=xlNone, SkipBlanks _
        :=False, Transpose:=False
'
End Sub
```

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APPENDIX K IATA CAPEX / OPEX ADJUSTMENT FACTORS

SOURCE: IATA AIRPORT DEVELOPMENT DEFERENCE MANUAL 9TH EDITION

Continent	Country	Factor (UK = 100)
Africa	Algeria	55
Africa	Cameroon	67
Africa	Chad	66
Africa	Cote d'Ivoire	71
Africa	Gabon	67
Africa	Gambia	74
Africa	Ghana	80
Africa	Nigeria	65
Africa	Senegal	67
Africa	South Africa	26
Africa	Zambia	45

Asia	Brunei	40
Asia	China	56
Asia	Hong Kong	72
Asia	India	19
Asia	Indonesia	47
Asia	Japan	110
Asia	Malaysia	29
Asia	Philippines	37
Asia	Singapore	59
Asia	South Korea	66
Asia	Sri Lanka	21
Asia	Taiwan	62
Asia	Thailand	43
Asia	Vietnam	47

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APPENDIX K IATA CAPEX / OPEX ADJUSTMENT FACTORS CONTINUED

SOURCE: IATA AIRPORT DEVELOPMENT DEFERENCE MANUAL 9TH EDITION

Continent	Country	Factor (UK = 100)
C America	Costa Rica	59
C America	Mexico	70
Caribbean	Bahamas	84
Caribbean	Jamaica	65
Caribbean	Puerto Rico	78
Europe	Austria	80
Europe	Belgium	84
Europe	Cyprus	46
Europe	Czech Rep	51
Europe	Finland	80
Europe	France	80
Europe	Germany	72
Europe	Greece	51
Europe	Ireland	96
Europe	Italy	73
Europe	Netherlands	79
Europe	Poland	56
Europe	Portugal	52
Europe	Romania	30
Europe	Slovak Rep	33
Europe	Spain	60
Europe	Switzerland	89
Middle East	Bahrain	68
Middle East	Egypt	57
Middle East	Israel	45
Middle East	Jordan	60
Middle East	Kuwait	66
Middle East	Lebanon	66
Middle East	Oman	62
Middle East	Qatar	66
Middle East	Saudi Arabia	57

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APPENDIX K IATA CAPEX / OPEX ADJUSTMENT FACTORS CONTINUED

SOURCE: IATA AIRPORT DEVELOPMENT DEFERENCE MANUAL 9TH EDITION

Continent	Country	Factor (UK = 100)
S America	Argentina	20
S America	Brazil	49
S America	Chile	43
S America	Colombia	57
S America	French Guiana	84
S America	Guyana	65
S America	Peru	53
S America	Venezuela	37

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APPENDIX L THESIS RESULTS TARGET AUDIENCE

MODEL	PRIMARY USERS					
INPUTS AND OUTPUTS	AIRPORT AUTHORITIES	AIRLINES	BHS SUPPLIERS	COST CONSULTANTS	REGULATORS	ARCHITECTS & CONSULTANTS
DESIGN						
DEFINES BAGGAGE HANDLING SYSTEM COMPONENTS	•		•	•		•
DEFINES BAGGAGE HANDLING SYSTEM BUILDING SIZE / LEVELS / GRIDS	•		•	•		•
DEFINES MULTIPLE TECHNOLOGY OPTIONS	•	•	•	•		•
COSTS						
DEFINES BAGGAGE SYSTEM CAPITAL COSTS	•	•	•	•	•	
DEFINES BAGGAGE BUILDING CAPITAL COSTS	•	•	•	•	•	
DEFINES BAGGAGE SYSTEM OPERATING COSTS	•	•	•	•	•	
DEFINES BAGGAGE BUILDING OPERATING COSTS	•	•	•	•	•	
DEFINES PROJECT WHOLE LIFE CYCLE COSTS	•	•	•	•	•	
DEFINES COSTS PER BAG	•	•	•	•	•	
DEFINES PROJECT ON COSTS	•	•	•	•	•	
PEOPLE ISSUES						
DEFINES QUANTITY STAFF REQUIRED FOR CONVENTIONAL BHS	•	•	•			•
DEFINES QUANTITY STAFF REQUIRED FOR SEMI AUTOMATIC BHS	•	•	•			•
DEFINES QUANTITY STAFF REQUIRED FOR ROBOTIC FULLY AUTOMATIC BHS	•	•	•			•

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APPENDIX M EXAMPLE OF ASSEMBLED BHS COMPONENTS

